

# THE CLEARING HOUSE

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## EDITORIAL

JESSE H. NEWLON

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Dr. Newlon's editorial is the outgrowth of an address delivered at a meeting of the Secondary Club, a group of high-school administrators who meet several times each year, under the sponsorship of Professor T. H. Briggs of Teachers College, for the discussion of significant educational problems. Articles by four others who spoke at the same meeting will appear in forthcoming issues of the CLEARING HOUSE.

A. D. W.

### AN AWAKENED, LIVE, INSATIABLE, INTELLECTUAL CURIOSITY

Most professional students of education would agree that the cultivation in each individual of an insatiable intellectual curiosity should be regarded as one of the most important objectives of the secondary school. If one may judge by current criticisms, in no respect has the American secondary school more completely failed. We have talked much about individual differences and adjustment to individual needs, about learning as an active process, about

self-initiated and socialized group activities, but so far as we can see in the younger generation of Americans, we have all too little to show for our efforts.

In the study of education our attention has been focused on the study of the child, on methods of teaching, on the problem of the school. It is generally believed that we have liberalized and improved our educational procedures in the last generation, and I, for one, am inclined to think that such a claim is to a considerable extent justified. We have produced teachers and schools

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here and there that are doing much to challenge and keep growing the innate intellectual curiosity of children, but on the whole the results are disappointing and I am convinced that if we expect to find an adequate solution of our difficulties solely through conventional educational research, we are doomed to further disappointment. While our eyes have been focused on the school, we have been unaware of what we might learn with reference to teaching from the world of adult life.

What are the characteristics of a live, insatiable, intellectual curiosity? Is there some salient characteristic of this phenomenon in adult life, some condition favorable to its emergence, that gives us a cue for the schools? Intellectual curiosity manifests itself in many different ways. The scientist quietly probing the secrets of nature is intellectually curious. The inventor working in obscurity in his shop displays this quality. The scientist and inventor have remade the modern world. Although little aware of, and usually totally unprepared for, the social consequences of their discoveries, they have, despite their limited social outlook, been unwilling to accept conditions as they found them. The scientist has believed that new truth could be discovered, the inventor that tools could be improved.

But let us look beyond the realm of science and the industrial arts. The truly intellectually curious in our society are critical of things as they are. However great their appreciation may be of their social heritage, they are imbued with an undying faith that conditions can be improved. There goes with this belief, too, the conviction that they owe something to society. The Tom Paines, the Emersons, the Deweys, the Beards, the Lenins, the Ghandis, the Franklins, the Jeffersons, the Jacksons, the moralists, political reformers, and radicals are the most intellectually awake people in society. They are and always have been critics. The same is true of the artists, the Whitmans,

the Thoreaus, the Sandburgs, the Cezannes, the Sullivans, who are unwilling to accept the old form as adequate, but persist in breaking with convention and inventing new forms. Cultural progress in whatever field—in economics, in politics, in science, in morals, in religion, in aesthetics—in every generation is, in large measure, the product of those minds that refuse to conform to the established mores but insist, sometimes at tremendous sacrifice, in experimenting with new ideas and new forms. Such persons take sheer pleasure in the play of ideas.

Why are there so few of the intellectually curious in American life today? Why is our economic and political leadership so bankrupt? The answer is that our society has been exceptionally well organized to enforce conformity in these social realms in the last seventy-five years. Too much of our potential intellectual leadership has, of course, been absorbed in our industrial development. We have encouraged invention in the realm of machinery and, to a certain extent, in the business realm, but we have enforced conformity of thought in the more vital realms of economics, politics, and morals. Time will not permit a description of how our basic institutions including the schools, our political parties, patriotic societies, the press, chambers of commerce, and other agencies and conditions of American life have enforced solidarity of thought and conformity to the established mores and the old traditions. The school has been used as one of the chief instruments to enforce this conformity. The American school has been used altogether too much to indoctrinate American youth with the belief that we are a chosen people; that our form of government is the best; that our institutions and ways of life are the best; that the dangerous person is the one who is critical of ourselves and our ways of life. The chaos and confusion in which we find ourselves today is the logical consequence of an attempt to confine the processes of a terrifically dy-

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namic society within the framework of an ideology that belongs to a culture which we have long since outgrown.

The young child is a bundle of questions. He is intellectually curious. Our educational practices in home and in school have been calculated to crush this innate intellectual urge, to make of him a conforming individual. The schools we have carefully insulated from the crucial problems of American life. If we desire the school to make any considerable contribution towards the cultivation of intellectual curiosity, we must allow for the play of ideas; we must see the importance of experimentation and criticism. We must encourage wisely the non-conformist. The school must come to grips with the crucial controversial questions of American life in every realm from art to politics. What can we expect when a superintendent of a great school system promulgates an order that the issues of a presidential campaign may not be discussed in the schools during the period of the campaign?

I do not need to point out that to make the school a theater for the play of ideas is fraught with difficulties and perils. There is trouble ahead when the school comes to grips with the realities of life. We must frankly face the question as to whether we want the school to participate in the remaking of American life, or to follow a generation or so behind. If we really believe that the cultivation of intellectual curiosity should be one of the objectives of the secondary school, there is no other way than this and we should be willing to take the risks that are involved.

What I am trying to say is that we should try to put into practice the ideal to which we have given lip service for thirty years—that the school should be closely articulated with life about it. The school has been used too much as an instrument to condition the thinking of youth so that they will not think in such ways as to endanger anybody's sacred cows.

**NOTICE****EIGHTH ANNUAL JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL CONFERENCE**

The Eighth Annual Junior-High-School Conference will be held at New York University on March 18-19, 1932. The central theme of this conference will be: "The New Age Challenges Teaching Methods." Two general sessions coming Friday evening and Saturday morning will be followed by some thirty round tables related to the central topic.

This conference is unique in that it is a coöperative arrangement, the directive force being vested in an advisory committee of thirty-six representative educators distributed throughout the Eastern States. The committee just referred to gives practical direction to the character of the conference. New York University offers the facilities for making this clearing-house treatment of junior-high-school problems possible.

The regional character of the conference makes it one of the most important of its kind in the country. In 1931, upwards of 2,000 attended it. The following States took an active part in the conference as revealed by talent and individual attendance: New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and Ohio. It is also interesting to note that the conference has had a remarkable growth. With seven round tables and thirty speakers in 1925, it has expanded to include thirty-one round tables and one hundred thirty-four speakers for 1931.

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What are the conditions for the achievement of our objective? A highly enlightened public opinion with reference to the importance of education in contemporary life is undoubtedly necessary. Many factors are important, but one of the most important is the teacher. We might go so far as to say that the immediate cause of the intellectual sterility of American secondary education is

the intellectual sterility of the American secondary-school teacher. American teachers are careful not to express their opinions about moot questions. With few exceptions they carefully refrain from participation in affairs outside the strictly routine duties of their positions. They play little part in those movements looking to the betterment of American life. As a group they are little interested in economics or politics, in morals or aesthetics. They are chiefly concerned with the mechanics of their profession. Back of the teacher is the liberal-arts college and the school of education.

Back of the school of education is our all too narrow concept of the function of school, which has led to an altogether too narrow concept of the study of education.

This thought cannot be pursued further here. I do not see how we can cultivate intellectual curiosity by restricting the intellectual curiosity of children to those areas of life that seem to the established order perfectly innocuous. Perhaps after all we do not wish to cultivate intellectual curiosity in the American youth. Perhaps we wish only to condition him to think in certain approved ways.

## HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM REVISIONS AND INNOVATIONS

GEORGE E. CARROTHERS

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Carrothers, through his division of high-school inspection at the University of Michigan, is making some very interesting curriculum studies. His splendid training, his wide experience, including college teaching, serving as dean of a college, holding responsible positions in a large city school system, besides filling the rôle of a university high-school inspector, enable him to attack the high-school curriculum in a rather unique way. This article attests to the way he is approaching the problem.*

J. R.

As long ago as 1925, Professor Thomas H. Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, listed 150 separate curriculum studies which had been made during the previous ten years. Today there are literally thousands of articles, research studies, and books available in this field of education. Apparently men and women working in secondary education are anxious so to revise and organize high-school curricula that the needs of the largest possible number of pupils may be met. Large high schools offer a whole array of curricula for the guidance of incoming freshmen. In contrast with this we find the single-track curriculum of the small high school. About half the high schools of the country are so small that a total of only sixteen units of work can be offered. In these schools it is necessary for every pupil to take the entire curriculum and to pass in every course, either with an earned or with a complimentary mark, if

he is to be graduated. In most of these small high schools, the only innovation possible is the offering of an extra course now and then with a possible choice for pupils in advanced classes.

Despite the many curriculum studies already made, an abundance of data is available in the files of organizations and colleges which as yet has not been given attention. The material used in the preparation of this paper was obtained from three sources. (1) During the year 1924-1925 and again for 1929-1930, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools obtained rather elaborate quinquennial reports from each member school. (2) The State chairman for Michigan obtained the same sort of report from every high school in the State for the year 1929-1930. (3) In 1930-1931, the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club obtained a report from 600 high schools in the State on the courses and cur-

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ricula offered in all of these schools, the grade or grades in which different courses are offered, the courses required, and the curricula principals of these schools would offer if they could be entirely free from college-entrance requirements and regulations of standardizing agencies. These three groups of carefully prepared reports brought in a large amount of data, a part of which is analyzed in this paper.

**CURRICULUM OFFERINGS AND CHANGES**

The curriculum of the American high school has had a tremendous expansion since

its first adoption in the English high school of Boston a little more than a hundred years ago. It has also had many internal expansions, contractions, and shifts during this time and more particularly during the past two or three decades. Curriculum enrollments for the year 1929-1930 in the 2,226 North Central Association high schools appeared in general summary form in the *Quarterly* of this association for June 1930. Table 1 shows the percentages of enrollments of different subjects in Michigan North Central high schools for the years 1924-1925 and 1929-1930, within the aca-

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES OF DEPARTMENT ENROLLMENTS IN MICHIGAN NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION  
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Department</i>		<i>1924-1925</i>	<i>1929-1930</i>	<i>Per cent of gain or loss</i>
<b>Part 1. Academic</b>				
Mathematics .....	19.7	18.9	4.1—	
English .....	29.9	33.0	10.4+	
Languages .....	17.2	13.9	19.2—	
Social science .....	19.8	20.1	1.5+	
Science .....	13.4	14.1	5.2+	
	<hr/> 100.0	<hr/> 100.0		
<b>Part 2. Nonacademic</b>				
Commercial .....	47.0	50.9	8.3+	
Manual training .....	14.0	13.7	2.1—	
Household arts .....	8.0	9.7	21.3+	
Agriculture .....	2.8	1.9	32.1—	
Music .....	22.2	19.6	11.7—	
Art .....	6.0	4.2	30.0—	
	<hr/> 100.0	<hr/> 100.0		
<b>Part 3. All Departments</b>				
Mathematics .....	14.3	12.8	10.5—	
English .....	21.8	22.3	2.3+	
Languages .....	12.5	9.4	24.8—	
Social science .....	14.4	13.6	5.5—	
Science .....	9.7	9.6	1.0—	
Commercial .....	12.8	16.5	28.9+	
Manual training .....	3.8	4.4	15.8+	
Household arts .....	2.2	3.1	40.9+	
Agriculture .....	.8	.6	25.0—	
Music .....	6.1	6.3	3.3+	
Art .....	1.6	1.4	12.5—	
	<hr/> 100.0	<hr/> 100.0		
Total Academic .....	73	68		
Total Nonacademic .....	27	32		

TABLE II

PERCENTAGES OF DEPARTMENT ENROLLMENTS IN MICHIGAN NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION  
PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOLS

<i>Department</i>		<i>1924-1925</i>	<i>1929-1930</i>	<i>Per cent of gain or loss</i>
Part 1. Academic				
Mathematics .....		19.8	19.1	3.5—
English .....		26.4	29.4	11.4+
Languages .....		26.8	23.0	14.2—
Social science .....		16.6	18.5	11.4+
Science .....		10.4	10.0	3.8—
	100.0	100.0		
Part 2. Nonacademic				
Commercial .....		26.6	35.7	34.2+
Manual training .....		6.0	3.4	43.3—
Household arts .....		14.2	2.3	83.8—
Agriculture .....		1.3	.3	77.0—
Music .....		50.1	54.6	9.0+
Art .....		1.8	3.7	105.5+
	100.0	100.0		
Part 3. All Departments				
Mathematics .....		16.8	15.4	8.3—
English .....		22.4	23.7	5.8+
Language .....		22.8	18.5	18.8—
Social science .....		14.1	14.9	5.7+
Science .....		8.9	8.1	9.0—
Commercial .....		4.0	6.9	72.5+
Manual training .....		.9	.7	22.2—
Household arts .....		2.1	.4	80.9—
Agriculture .....		.2	.1	50.0—
Music .....		7.5	10.6	41.3+
Art .....		.3	.7	133.3+
	100.0	100.0		
Total Academic .....		.85	.81	
Total Nonacademic .....		.15	.19	

demic department, within the nonacademic department, and within all departments taken together.

In these public high schools it is interesting to note that enrollments in mathematics dropped from 19.7 per cent of the academic department in 1924-1925 to 18.9 per cent in 1929-1930. This is a loss of 4.1 per cent of the proportion mathematics had in 1924-1925. Foreign language dropped from 17.2 per cent to 13.9 per cent. English, social science, and science increased their relative positions within the academic group during this five-year period.

Within the nonacademic group, commercial work and household arts increased their relative standings while manual training, agriculture, music, and art lost. It should be remembered that these are the large public high schools.

When total enrollments in both academic and nonacademic departments are considered together a somewhat different situation is observed. Taking the proportion of the total enrollment that is enrolled in each subject, it is seen that English is the only academic subject which made a gain during the five-year period, and it did little more

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COMPARISON OF THE PERCENTAGES OF DEPARTMENT ENROLLMENTS IN THE FOUR TYPES OF  
MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOLS, 1929-1930

<i>Department</i>	<i>North Central Association (Public)</i>	<i>North Central Association (Private)</i>	<i>Non-North Central Association (Public)</i>	<i>Non-North Central Association (Private)</i>
<b>Part 1. Academic</b>				
Mathematics .....	18.9	19.1	19.3	19.0
English .....	33.0	29.4	27.0	29.2
Languages .....	13.9	23.0	9.6	22.6
Social science .....	20.1	18.5	25.4	19.0
Science .....	14.1	10.0	18.7	10.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Part 2. Nonacademic</b>				
Commercial .....	50.9	35.7	38.0	40.2
Manual training .....	13.7	3.4	9.2	.3
Household arts .....	9.7	2.3	11.4	1.3
Agriculture .....	1.9	.3	10.8	0.0
Music .....	19.6	54.6	28.7	54.5
Art .....	4.2	3.7	1.9	3.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Part 3. All Departments</b>				
Mathematics .....	12.8	15.4	14.6	15.5
English .....	22.3	23.7	20.5	23.9
Language .....	9.4	18.5	7.3	18.6
Social science .....	13.6	14.9	19.2	15.6
Science .....	9.6	8.1	14.1	8.3
Commercial .....	16.5	6.9	9.2	7.2
Manual training .....	4.4	.7	2.2	.1
Household arts .....	3.1	.4	2.8	.3
Agriculture .....	.6	.1	2.6	0.0
Music .....	6.3	10.6	7.0	9.8
Art .....	1.4	.7	.5	.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total Academic .....	68	81	76	82
Total Nonacademic .....	32	19	24	18

than hold its own. Nonacademic subjects had such a large gain during the five years that, relatively speaking, mathematics, foreign language, social science, and science lost in enrollment.

Enrollments in mathematics in private high schools also show a small drop during the five-year period. Enrollments in foreign languages decreased, but in a smaller proportion than in public schools. Science offerings increased in public schools during the five years and decreased in private schools. In the nonacademic group, com-

mercial courses, music, and art show increases. When all departments are grouped in these private schools and considered together, English and social science are the only academic subjects which show an actual gain in proportion of enrollment.

Comparing the two subject departments, academic and nonacademic, in the two groups of schools, public and private, it is observed in public high schools in 1924-1925 that 73 per cent of all enrollments were academic. In 1929-1930 this had dropped to 68 per cent. Private schools had 85 per

cent of their enrollments in academic subjects. In 1929-1930 this had dropped to 81 per cent. The proportion of work offered in academic courses in private schools has apparently always been larger than the proportion offered in public schools. During the five-year period, 1924-1925 to 1929-1930, each group of schools decreased its total offerings in the academic field and increased the offerings in the nonacademic field. Public schools decreased their proportion of academic work at a more rapid rate than did private schools. Approximately one third of the subject enrollments in public high schools are in nonacademic subjects. In private high schools less than one fifth of the enrollments are in nonacademic subjects.

In each type of high school at the present time, mathematics appears to hold about 19 per cent of the total subject enrollments. English has its largest enrollment in public high schools, while foreign languages have their largest enrollments in private high schools. Sciences have larger per cents of enrollments in public high schools than in

either type of private high school. Accredited high schools of all types are increasing the proportionate amount of nonacademic work offered. Public high schools both small and large are increasing nonacademic offerings more rapidly than are private high schools, and at the present time they offer a considerably larger amount of nonacademic work than is offered in private high schools.

Latin, French, German, Spanish, Greek, Polish, and Finnish are offered in the foreign-language departments, and six North Central schools offer first-year Greek. Five of these teach second-year Greek. Fifty high schools are teaching German. The enrollment in German in North Central schools increased during the last five years from 1,345 to 2,415. Spanish is offered in both North Central and non-North Central public and private schools. Thirty-six of the larger schools offer first-year Spanish and 38 offer second-year. Five schools offer 4 years of Spanish.

Mathematics and foreign languages are not holding as large proportions of total

TABLE IV  
NAMES AND NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TAUGHT IN 467 MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOLS,  
1929-1930

<i>Languages Taught</i>	<i>Number of schools</i>	<i>Per cent offering</i>
Latin only .....	210	45.0
Latin, French .....	171	36.6
Latin, French, Spanish, German .....	20	4.3
Latin, French, Spanish .....	18	3.9
Latin, French, German .....	16	3.4
Latin, Spanish .....	10	2.2
Latin, German .....	6	1.3
Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, German .....	3	.6
Latin, Greek, German, French .....	2	.4
Latin, French, German, Finnish .....	1	.2
Latin, French, Polish .....	1	.2
Latin, Greek, German .....	1	.2
Latin, French, Greek, Polish .....	1	.2
Spanish only .....	2	.4
German only .....	1	.2
French only .....	4	.8
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>467</b>	<b>99.9</b>

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high-school enrollment as obtained a few years ago. Latin is about holding its usual place. Spanish is gradually disappearing, French is having a struggle to hold its usual enrollment, and German is gradually creeping back into the high-school curriculum. A summary made of reports on Latin in 238 of the smaller high schools of Michigan for the year 1929-1930, showed an enrollment of 2,752 pupils taking second-year Latin. Total enrollments in third-year Latin in these 238 schools dropped to 22 pupils. In these schools 1,030 boys are taking second-year Latin and only 8 are taking third-year work in this subject. A school as small as most of these is usually able to offer only two years of foreign language in its narrow curriculum. This language is usually Latin. It is also apparent that pupils in the smaller high schools, coming largely from rural communities, do not care to take more of a foreign language than is required for graduation.

A more detailed analysis of enrollments in some of the special subject-matter fields reveals interesting shifts and trends not brought out in the more comprehensive study. Some of these findings in the fields of foreign languages and in social science as discovered in the more critical analysis for all high schools, both North Central and non-North Central in one State, are presented in the following paragraphs.

Of the 467 high schools, 210, or 45 per cent, teach Latin only. Of the 210 high

schools, only 22, or 4.7 per cent, are of the large North Central schools. In other words, when a high school is so small that only one language is possible, that is nearly always Latin. Tradition and habit govern in many instances, while in others it is the availability of teachers. Qualified teachers of Latin, who are also prepared to teach other subjects and who are willing to go to the smaller communities, are more often available than teachers of Greek or of modern foreign languages.

This table shows that every high school offers a foreign language whether that is one of the best subjects for the particular community or not. The foreign-language tradition is difficult to overcome, likewise the habits of high-school teachers and principals who have been brought up on foreign languages.

Seven schools teach a single *modern* foreign language as the only foreign language offered—one of these being German, two Spanish, and four French.

In this same group of 467 schools, comprising more than 80 per cent of all accredited high schools in the State, 46 per cent offer only one foreign language. Another 40 per cent offer two foreign languages, while 14 per cent offer from three to five foreign languages. Three schools offer the five foreign languages—Latin, Greek, French, Spanish, and German. Schools with small enrollments are the ones offering only one foreign language. The 54

TABLE V

THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGES OF MICHIGAN HIGH SCHOOLS WHICH OFFER DIFFERENT NUMBERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, 1929-1930

<i>Number of Languages Taught</i>	<i>Number of schools</i>	<i>Percentage of schools</i>
One .....	217	46
Two .....	187	40
Three .....	36	8
Four .....	24	5
Five .....	3	1
Total .....	467	100

per cent of the schools offering more than one foreign language enrolled 75.4 per cent of the high-school pupils now in accredited schools. A choice of foreign languages is therefore possible for 75 per cent of all high-school pupils even though 46 per cent of the schools offer only one language.

The following two tables present figures showing percentages of high schools which offer different individual social-science courses in each of the years studied by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

schools in the year 1924-1925. This had increased until it was offered in 51 per cent of these high schools in 1929-1930. This was 157 per cent larger proportion of schools offering the subject the latter year than the former year. Ancient history, English history, and modern and medieval history are being replaced by world history, as can be seen from other figures in the table. Economics, sociology, American problems, and government are being offered in larger numbers of schools than formerly.

Table VII gives a picture of the social-

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGES OF 2,226 NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS OFFERING DIFFERENT SOCIAL-SCIENCE COURSES

	1924-1925	1929-1930	Gain or loss in per cent
World history .....	19.8	51.0	157+
Community civics .....	31.2	45.0	44+
Government .....	39.3	49.5	26+
Economics .....	42.7	51.7	9+
Sociology .....	17.9	33.3	86+
American problems .....	9.5	20.2	112+
Ancient history .....	53.9	41.0	24-
English history .....	7.9	6.2	22-

Table VI shows the percentages of all schools offering each social-science course in each of the two different years for which reports were received. The third column gives the gain or loss in per cent for each course. It is noted that world history was offered in 19.8 per cent of all North Central

science situation in one State as revealed in figures for the five-year period. World history has had even larger relative and actual increases than is true for the entire North Central territory. Government was taught in 27.8 per cent of all Michigan high schools in 1924-1925 and increased to 38.8 per cent

TABLE VII

PERCENTAGES OF MICHIGAN NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION HIGH SCHOOLS OFFERING DIFFERENT SOCIAL-SCIENCE COURSES

	1924-1925	1929-1930	Gain or loss in per cent
World history .....	27.8	73.1	162.9+
Community civics .....	41.7	46.3	11.0+
Government .....	27.8	38.8	39.2+
Economics .....	28.6	70.0	141.3+
Sociology .....	9.8	23.1	135.7+
American history .....	94.2	97.5	3.5+
Ancient history .....	63.9	42.5	33.5-
English history .....	19.6	6.3	67.9-
Medieval and modern history .....	84.2	49.4	41.3-
American problems .....	16.4	13.8	21.9-

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of these schools by 1929-1930. Table VI shows that nearly one-half (49.5 per cent) of all North Central schools offer this subject. This may be one of the reasons why the last Michigan legislature enacted a law making the teaching of government compulsory in every high school.

The trends in enrollments in foreign languages during the past few years as indicated above, as well as the percentages of the number of schools offering different social-science courses, probably have been influenced rather definitely by the World War. In some States, German disappeared entirely from the curricula of public high schools. Spanish and French received increased attention for a while and only recently have secondary schoolmen undertaken a return towards the situation existing prior to 1914.

**INFLUENCE OF ACCREDITING AGENCIES**

All figures and data received in reports sent to various accrediting agencies are for enrollments and conditions as now existing. In order that information might be obtained on the sorts of curricula which high-school principals would offer in their respective communities, if they were free to do as they wish, the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club obtained statements from principals of more than 600 of these schools during the year 1930-1931. The following are summaries and conclusions drawn from these reports.

The reports gave definite evidence that principals of high schools are interested in providing the kind or kinds of curricula which will be useful to pupils in their schools. In fact, there was evidence of a greater belief in the efficacy of special kinds of curricula than some of the recent research studies would seem to warrant. Some of these studies appear to indicate that the particular curriculum pattern pursued by a pupil in high school may be considerably less important for future success either in or

out of college than are the quality of work, habits of study, and citizenship attitudes developed in the school and courses taken. It may be that principals are offering the different curricula as inducements to pupils to study subjects which they like, thus hoping to provide a greater assurance that right attitudes, good study habits, and a good quality of work will result.

Some high schools have organized a dozen or more curricula with several subcurricula from which entering pupils are expected to select the one which will best suit their needs. Some of the names used are: academic curriculum, household arts, commercial, general, college preparatory, agricultural, industrial arts, music, music and art, scientific, university, etc. In contrast with this array, we find hundreds of schools so small that only a single watertight curriculum can be offered to meet the needs of all the boys and girls in the community. This one curriculum is required of every pupil who desires to be graduated by the high school.

A careful study of the data submitted to the Schoolmasters' Club by the 600 high-school principals appears to warrant the following conclusions:

1. Sciences are offered more extensively in public than in private high schools and academies. The sciences in their order of frequency are: physics, chemistry, biology, general science; physics appearing the most frequently. General science is being transferred to the eighth grade where qualified teachers are available.
2. Physics and chemistry are offered in the eleventh or in the twelfth grade or in a combination of these. Physics nearly always comes in the twelfth grade; chemistry in the eleventh; biology in the tenth, or in the ninth; and general science practically always in the ninth, if in the high school.
3. Principals of both public and private high schools desire to see German offered more extensively. This is possible under

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present accrediting regulations, but pupils do not seem greatly interested.

4. The social-studies group includes twelve rather definite subjects: American history, American problems, ancient history, community civics, economics, English history, government or advanced civics, industrial history, modern and medieval history, psychology, sociology, world history. Five of these—community civics, American history, ancient history, modern and medieval history, and world history—are offered as year courses. The other seven are offered as half-year courses.

5. The desires for changes in social-studies curricula expressed by principals of public schools are for reductions in the extent to which ancient history, modern and medieval history, and English history are offered. The quinquennial curriculum reports for North Central schools for 1929-1930

when compared with summaries for the year 1924-1925 showed that these three history courses are the ones losing in their relative per cents of student enrollments in public schools.

6. Principals express a desire to see community civics, American history, world history, and several other courses offered somewhat more extensively. An examination of the quinquennial reports shows that these are the courses which are being offered more extensively and in a larger number of schools.

7. In social-studies courses, as well as in mathematics and other curriculum fields, the changes now being made are apparently as extensive and as large in amount as principals have definitely desired.

It is quite apparent that revisions and innovations in high-school curricula reflect the influence of economic and social changes. It is also apparent that high schools are influenced to a certain degree in their curriculum offerings by accrediting agencies but that they can bring about curriculum changes when they desire to do so. The influence of accrediting agencies appears to be suggestive rather than in any way exercising direct control. Principals of high schools are studying their curricula in an attempt to make the revisions which will be of most use to the largest number of pupils, but they are rather conservative when it comes to making definite changes. On the whole, the curriculum situation in high schools appears to be receiving thoughtful attention, it appears to be improving, and the outlook for further worth-while changes appears to be encouraging.

## THE NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION— A SUMMARY OF PROGRESS

CARL A. JESSEN

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Since Mr. Jessen has sat in at all the group meetings held by the consultants and specialists, and has assisted Director Cooper and Associate Director Koos in every phase of the survey, he is in a position to speak with authority on the subject. His article, coming fresh from the Office of Education, will be most welcomed by all persons interested in the National Survey of Secondary Education.*

J. R.

The National Survey of Secondary Education is now in its third and final year. The plans laid two and one-half years ago have largely come to fruition and we now find ourselves in a position where we can look back upon the trail which has been traveled and forward to the early completion of the journey.

As this is written the specialists employed on the survey are engaged in digesting the data that have been gathered and in preparing the reports of the findings. A few have completed the first drafts of their reports and are either waiting for reactions to them or, having secured such reactions, are preparing the final drafts. None of the reports have as yet been printed nor are any likely to be available for distribution in printed form before early summer.

So many statements have been made regarding the administrative, advisory, and specialist staff of the survey that space will not here be given to enumeration of names of staff members.<sup>1</sup> The set-up includes a director, an associate director, a coördinator, a consultant board of 9, a professional committee of 30, an advisory committee of 56, a professional investigating staff of 27, and a clerical staff of varying size depending upon the need for such service.

There are 24 projects included for study in the survey. One of these, the one on the curriculum, includes individual investigations in English, social studies, science,

mathematics, foreign language, music, and art in addition to general study of the curriculum situation. Analyses of vocational subject fields are assigned to the project on horizontal articulation. The complete list of projects is as follows:

1. Secondary-school reorganization
2. Horizontal organization and secondary-school population
3. School-district organization for the administration and supervision of secondary education
4. Special problems in reorganization
5. Characteristics of small high schools
6. Study of selected secondary schools in smaller communities and rural areas
7. Guidance
8. Administrative and supervisory staff
9. Practices in the selection and appointment of teachers
10. Provisions for individual differences, marks and marking systems, plans for promotion of pupils
11. School publicity
12. Curriculum, English, foreign languages, music, mathematics, science, social studies
13. Extracurricular activities and nonathletic interscholastic contests
14. Intramural and interscholastic athletic contests
15. Articulation of high schools and colleges
16. Physical education and health supervision
17. Legal and other regulatory provisions affecting secondary schools
18. Research initiated by the schools
19. Supervision of instruction
20. Registration and schedule making
21. Library service
22. Special reorganizations
23. Secondary education for Negroes
24. The junior college

Each specialist first occupied himself with gaining a more thorough acquaintance than he had ever before had with the studies already made in his field of inquiry. At first

<sup>1</sup>The reader who is interested in earlier progress reports is referred to articles by Dr. Leonard V. Koos and by the writer appearing in the October 1930, and the May 1931, issues of *School Life*. A report also appears as a part of the chapter on secondary education in the *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930*. (Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office.)

sight this may seem to be an unwarranted activity since, due to the care with which specialists were selected, one might assume for each one thorough knowledge of the literature in his field. Generally speaking such an assumption is justified if one limits his definition of educational literature to that portion of it which has been printed. There are, however, in any important educational field many significant studies which never find their way into print and which therefore may not attract the attention even of one who specializes in that field. Numerous doctor's dissertations and especially master's theses are to be had only in manuscript form. Much worth-while material is mimeographed or otherwise duplicated and consequently has a very limited circulation; in fact a large majority of studies conducted by State and city research departments appears in this form. This type of usually inaccessible material the specialists were encouraged especially to secure and examine. From libraries, from office files, and from the authors themselves thousands of these studies were borrowed or otherwise assembled. Those portions which appeared to be significant for the several projects of the survey were briefed for reference.

In all of the investigations, except projects 5 and 23 which are largely status studies, the emphasis is upon the unusual, the innovative, the outstanding. The primary interest is not in the average, nor the median, nor the typical. This feature of the survey can hardly be overemphasized since it determines the approach in nearly all cases. In the first project listed, for instance, the study concerns itself with ordinary reorganization only in so far as such reorganization serves as a background. The picture presented in the final report will principally be of the school with thorough-going reorganization and of the practices which appear to be truly significant.

Obviously, the first question which confronts one who attempts to study outstand-

ing schools is: Which schools shall be included in the study? The extensive study of educational literature and examination of reports, already referred to, supplied in part the answer to this question; materials submitted by or about schools were helpful in indicating emphases in individual schools. Principally the names of schools to be included on the list were secured from those who had intimate acquaintance with schools of various sections and localities. Thorough efforts were made to secure the judgments of State educational officials who visit schools throughout the several States and of city superintendents and members of their staffs who should know schools as no one else can within any given city. Judgments were solicited also from large numbers of other persons whose positions and connections made it likely that they would have intimate knowledge of certain school practices. Many librarians and library organizations were, for instance, approached for nomination of schools giving special attention to library service. Finally school principals were in the cases of many of the projects urged to pass judgments as to which, if any, practices within their own schools might be regarded as extraordinary or unusually successful. From these various sources there was developed for each project a list of schools which, according to the best judgments available, might profitably be approached for information regarding their practices.

The next step was the preparation of inquiry forms to be sent to the schools thus selected. The purpose was to learn more in detail regarding the practices in these schools. The forms were therefore prepared with scrupulous consideration of their content and with careful concern for economizing the time of the respondent.

In all, 83 different forms, varying in length from 1 to 46 pages each, were circulated to State departments of public instruction, to city systems, to individual secondary

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schools, and to superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers, research directors, librarians, pupils, parents, and other persons whose contacts keep them in touch with the schools and their product. Care was exercised through check of each mailing list against a composite record of all mailing lists that no one institution should receive a disproportionately large number of forms. Nearly 175,000 forms were circulated. The responses ranged from a 100 per cent return on some forms to a 16 per cent return on an inquiry mailed to former students of the schools. The return on all forms at the time this is written averages 62 per cent.

On the basis of data given on the inquiry forms, supplemented by such additional information as could be obtained, the specialists selected certain schools to be visited. These visits were made for the purpose of securing better understanding of the practices operative in outstanding schools. Especially were they made to gain certain types of information which are difficult to secure satisfactorily by correspondence or reports. The records indicate that 800 visits to schools and school systems in all sections of the United States have been made by members of the survey staff during the last two years.

The reader will recognize that through judgments of those well acquainted with individual schools, through study of the returns on inquiry forms, and through visits to the schools there has been introduced a progressive series of selections. No illusion is entertained by those employed on the survey that all outstanding schools have been found through this sifting process, but certainly those schools which have emerged are worthy of being reported because of their constructive practices. Through study of data tabulated and summarized from the in-

quiry forms and through observation of the schools the specialist has secured an intimate knowledge of policies and practices which have proved effective. The preparation of the report is the next step. It is in this phase that the specialists are at present engaged.

It is planned that the survey report will be issued by the Office of Education in a series of monographs rather than in one or two large volumes. Generally speaking, there will be one monograph for each project although deviation from this plan will occur in a few cases. One monograph will summarize the findings of the entire survey. Since extensive circulation of these reports is regarded as vital, approximately one seventh of the whole appropriation is reserved in the printing fund.

For giving further currency to the findings there are under way plans for a series of conferences to be held in various sections of the nation following completion of the survey. This plan was discussed by the advisory groups at their meeting in Detroit last February and has recently occupied the attention of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. Although such meetings cannot be held effectively until after the reports are available, the Office of Education has received requests for such conferences to be held under the auspices of various State and regional associations. The object of these meetings will not be to force acceptance of the survey findings or adoption of any policy based upon them. No such motive is present in the minds of those furthering the meetings. It is recognized that those present at a conference may see in certain procedures the solutions for their own problems, but any policy which grows out of such conviction will be adopted entirely as a result of local decision.

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

FRANCIS L. BACON

*EDITOR'S NOTE: This splendid article from the pen of Mr. Bacon is most timely. Having served as principal of three very large high schools in the East and North, and having served as president one year of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Mr. Bacon can speak with first-hand knowledge of the work of this great organization. This is especially true since it has grown and developed in his territory, primarily, and in many respects under his guidance and control. Mr. Bacon is now with the Evanston (Ill.) Township High School.*

J. R.

On Wednesday evening, February 23, 1916, a small group of high-school principals gathered in the Cadillac Hotel at Detroit, Michigan. For some time the idea had been abroad that the high-school principals of the country should be represented by a national organization. There seemed to be adequate support for such a proposition, but necessary leadership was apparently lacking.

This small group of high-school principals, composed of C. B. Briggs of Rockford, L. W. Smith of Harvey, K. D. Waldo of East High School, Aurora, W. L. Goble of Elgin, and H. V. Church of Cicero, discussed ways and means of capitalizing the interest and developing a procedure for some kind of organization.

From this discussion came the announcement, made the next morning, which brought together a group of high-school principals who were then in attendance at the Department of Superintendence meeting. This meeting was held Thursday afternoon, February 24, in the Hotel Statler. Mr. H. V. Church, principal of the J. Sterling Morton High School, was temporary chairman, and Mr. C. P. Briggs, principal of the Rockford High School, temporary secretary.

There was much discussion as to the purpose and form of the proposed national organization for secondary-school principals. Leaders in the discussion were: Principal H. E. Brown of New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois; Principal Jesse B. Davis of Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan; Dr. Charles Hughes Johnston of

the University of Illinois; Dr. T. H. Briggs of Columbia University; W. D. Lewis, principal of the William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Milo H. Stuart, principal of the Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis; Dr. Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education, The University of Chicago.

The discussion emphasized the need for the development of a class consciousness among high-school principals and the development of a true professionalization of secondary administration. From the discussion came a motion to hold a meeting of high-school principals in connection with the next convention of the National Department of Superintendence at Kansas City the following year. A committee was appointed to make arrangements for the program. Mr. H. V. Church of J. Sterling Morton High School was made the chairman. The other members were: Mr. Lewis of William Penn High School, Philadelphia; Mr. Davis of Central High School, Grand Rapids; and Mr. C. P. Briggs of Rockford High School.

Additional impetus and enthusiasm were given to the movement at the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which followed in March 1916. A number of high-school principals met informally at this time for a conference on the desirability of obtaining suitable recognition for the high-school principal. It was thought at this time that more definite steps should immediately be taken. Accordingly, a letter was sent to a number of the principals in the Middle West calling a meeting to be held in Chicago April 16.

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To this invitation 78 principals, representing 7 different States, responded. A permanent organization was made and the following officers were chosen: Principal B. Frank Brown, Lakeview High School, Chicago, president; Principal M. R. McDaniel, Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Illinois, vice president; Superintendent F. M. Hammitt of Mason City, Iowa, secretary-treasurer. These officers, with the addition of three others, constituted the executive committee. The other members of the executive committee were: Principal J. Remsen Bishop of Detroit, Michigan; Principal Jesse H. Newlon of Lincoln, Nebraska; and Principal H. V. Church of Cicero, Illinois.

The newly formed organization coöperated with the informal program committee which had been appointed at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in the making of plans for the first annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This meeting was held at Kansas City, Missouri, February 26 and 27 and March 1, 1917. The first program consisted of the following: The president's address, by B. Frank Brown; "The Administration of Educational and Vocational Guidance in the Junior and Senior High Schools," by Principal Jesse B. Davis; "The High-School Principal as Manager," by Professor Charles H. Judd; "The High-School Principal's Place in Reorganizing Objectives of High-School Education," by Professor David Snedden; "Relations Between High Schools and Universities," by Principal Benjamin F. Buck; "Supervised Student Activities in the School Program," by Principal Edwin Rynearson; "Measurement Tests in First-Term Geometry," by Principal J. Remsen Bishop; "The Administration of Quantitative and Qualitative Credit for High-School Work," by Principal W. A. Bailey; "Experiments in Supervised Study," by Principal I. M. Allen.

The first membership list consisted of 220 members, representing 32 different States.

Forty-eight of the original members were from Illinois, 19 from Iowa, 18 from Missouri, 18 from Pennsylvania, 16 from Michigan, 14 from Ohio, 13 from New Jersey, 10 from Minnesota, 9 from Wisconsin, 8 from Colorado, 8 from New York, 7 from Indiana, and the remainder widely scattered among several different States.

## ORIGINAL PURPOSE OF THE ORGANIZATION

In his presidential address Principal Brown outlined a number of reasons for the new association:

1. It will give the proper basis for the development of professional consciousness among all secondary-school principals.
2. It will become a clearing house for the exchange of new ideas and experiments with administration, and a forum for the discussion of all educational questions that pertain to secondary schools.
3. The consensus of opinion represented in the judgment of the national body of experts will give increased influence and power with our superior officers, with other educational programs, and with the general public on all matters that relate to our schools.
4. There will be the possibility of an organized inspection of colleges and universities by high-school men and women with respect to the welfare of the boys and girls who enter these schools for the purpose of intelligent physical, social, and moral development.

Mr. Brown asserted that if the Association made it possible to accomplish any one of these things, it would be worth while. He believed that if success came in two of them there should be much reason for enthusiasm; if more than that were accomplished the result would be a great organization, the influence of which would bring secondary education into the recognition it deserved, with much pride to its individual members.

The first suggestion for constructive work

came from Principal L. W. Smith of Harvey, Illinois, who presented the following motion: "Resolved that it is the sense of this Association that an important part of its constructive policy is the formulation of standards of high-school administration and that the incoming president be instructed to appoint a committee of five to study this problem and report at the next annual meeting of the Association."

The second item of work suggested for the Association was offered by Principal Jesse H. Newlon of Lincoln, Nebraska, who proposed the following: "Resolved that a committee not to exceed five be chosen by the president to report to this association on 'Methods of Educational Guidance in Secondary Education.'

The first banquet of the new association was held Monday evening, February 26, at the Coates House. Principal H. V. Church presided. Professor Charles Hughes Johnston was the first speaker. The subject of his address was "Class Consciousness Among High-School Principals." Unfortunately, the tragic and untimely death of Professor Johnston, following not long after the meeting, prevented the arrival of the manuscript for his address in time for inclusion in the first yearbook of the Association. This is one of the few addresses given before the Association which has failed to be preserved in the annual publication. The place of Dr. Johnston in the early counsels of the organization was most important and he left a significant contribution to the movement.

Dr. Judd of the School of Education of the University of Chicago was the other main speaker at the banquet. It is interesting to note that the very intimate and effective relationship of Dr. Judd with this association began in its first counsels and has continued throughout. For many years Dr. Judd was a regular speaker at each banquet and there have been few programs upon which his name has failed to appear.

#### THE ORIGINAL CONSTITUTION

At the last business session of the first meeting of the Association, a constitution was adopted. It was drawn in simple and general terms and formed a basis upon which the Association might develop in an unrestricted way. The original constitution will be found in the First Yearbook of the Association. There was unusual unanimity in the adoption of the constitution.

At this same time the officers for the second year, 1917-1918, were elected. These officers were Mr. Jesse B. Davis, principal of Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan, president; Mr. V. K. Froula, principal of the Lincoln High School, Seattle, Washington, vice president; Mr. H. V. Church, principal of J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois, secretary-treasurer.

The new executive committee consisted of Mr. W. M. Butler, principal of Yeatman High School, St. Louis, Missouri; Mr. B. Frank Brown, principal of Lakeview High School, Chicago, Illinois; Mr. Porter Graves, principal of Manual Training High School, Kansas City, Missouri; and Mr. Edwin Rynearson, principal of the Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

#### GROWTH IN MEMBERSHIP

In the second year of the Association's existence the membership grew to 242 paid members, with a larger distribution over the country. It was felt that this was a particularly good showing, considering the war year and that a large number of high-school principals had entered the service of the United States Government. The president, Mr. Jesse B. Davis, even though he continued in the duties of the president's office, resigned his position as principal of the Central High School at Grand Rapids to accept a position of importance with the national Government. There were many other examples of principals who kept their connections with the

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Association but who were in some branch of the Government service.

Following the war, the Association membership developed rapidly and each year a very considerable growth has been made. Recently the number of paid members has considerably exceeded three thousand. The membership in the main has consisted of high-school principals of both junior and senior schools. However, there have been many other members who represented different phases of secondary-school work. The interpretation of membership has always been a broad one, with the understanding that any person who had anything to do with executive work in the field of secondary-school administration was properly qualified for membership. The doors have never been closed to those who thought they could profit by affiliation with the organization.

At the time of the second national meeting a plan was proposed to tie up the national association more definitely with the existing State associations of high-school principals. The executive committee was at this time instructed to enter negotiations with State associations in the interest of promoting wider memberships, not only in such State organizations, but also in a scheme of affiliation whereby the high-school principal might belong to both the State and the national organization with economy of expense and time. This plan has been gradually worked out with increasing effectiveness. Many State associations are now satisfactorily affiliated with the national organization. Generally, at least one dollar of dues has been saved the individual principal through this plan. It has also definitely tied the questions and procedures of the State associations to similar items in the program of the national association. This affiliation has made for solidarity of interest and accomplishment, and certainly has emphasized the need for greater professionalization of the high-school principalship. It is believed

by many of the leaders in the secondary-school field that still greater benefits can be derived from such affiliation.

Lately the method of nominating the officers of the national association has been changed to afford more opportunity for the State associations to participate. It is felt that the representative principle can be wisely incorporated into the situation, so that State associations may feel that they have definite participation in the counsels and work of the national organization, through men who have been selected especially by the State associations. Moreover, this plan guarantees adequate representation from the various sections of the country, thus affording wiser counsel in matters which affect all principals everywhere.

**THE WAR YEAR**

Reference has already been made to the influence of the war in connection with the membership in the Association. The war naturally interfered with some of the work of the Association which had been first proposed. The second national meeting was made much simpler than otherwise might have been true. The program also reflected the war situation. The president's address is a particularly valuable document dealing with the subject of "The War and Public Schools." Historically, this address is of peculiar significance. It not only states the condition in which the schools were found because of the war, but it outlines forcefully the changes and adjustments which would increase the efficiency of the schools not only to aid in the prosecution of the war, but to further the cause of education generally. The practical suggestions made in this address are still vital and should offer a valuable reference for those who are interested in the continuing application of efficiency to school management.

The same program also carried an interesting report on the condition of physical education in the public schools, with some

particular applications to the war situation. There was also an address on military training in secondary schools.

The war affected the size of the Second Yearbook, there being but 66 pages, whereas the First Yearbook had carried 87. The first report of the treasurer was made in connection with the second meeting of the Association and a balance was reported February 20, 1918, of \$254.31.

#### THE FIRST WORK OF THE ASSOCIATION

Principal Henry E. Brown of New Trier Township High School gave the first report of a committee authorized by the Association. This report was given at the second meeting of the Association held at the Hotel Traymore, Atlantic City, New Jersey. The work of the committee had to do with the coöperation between colleges and secondary schools. The committee gave some interesting and usable statistics in regard to the entrance situation. The report emphasized the valuable aid furnished by such organizations as the regional association of colleges and secondary schools.

The first specific recommendation of the committee was in relation to the instructional situation in freshman college classes. The committee discovered that there were certain very definite lacks in the instructional program for college freshmen. The committee also proposed an investigation of the moral and spiritual atmosphere surrounding the first-year students. The committee's report emphasized to the colleges the need for more adequate and systematic reports relative to the quality of work done by students. The committee recommended that these reports continue over the whole four years of the student's residence at college and should not be confined to the first semester of the first year. In this respect it is interesting to note that colleges have gradually fallen in line and much more adequate reports are constantly being developed. This committee was to continue its work.

Another item of work first accomplished by the Association was that performed by a special committee on uniform high-school administration. This committee recommended that a standard record blank for the certification of grades be used by all high schools. The same committee also recommended a uniform system of marks—a four-letter system: A, B, C, D. The committee's recommendation included quality credits for these various marks and submitted definitions for same. A standard of sixteen units for graduation was also set. There was also a recommendation that a student must not make fewer than seven credits in a high school to be graduated from that high school. This committee was the first to mention a national honor society and made a recommendation that such a society be formed and that the basis of selection be high scholarship, coupled with either leadership in the school's activities or a manifestation of unusual originality and constructive ability. The committee also recommended the six-and-six plan as the best type of school organization. The junior college also received a specific recommendation.

The members of this committee were: Mr. J. G. Masters, principal of the Omaha Central High School, chairman; Mr. C. E. Reed, Youngstown, Ohio; Mr. G. H. Rockwood, Austin High School, Chicago; Mr. J. L. Thalman, Newcastle, Pennsylvania; and Mr. G. N. Tremper of Kenosha, Wisconsin.

The committee on vocational guidance, appointed at the first national meeting, gave an interesting report of progress. The first work of this committee was published in bulletin number 19 in 1918 by the Bureau of Education. The work of this committee was to continue for a number of years. The personnel of the committee varied at different times, but the chairman, Mr. Edwin Rynearson, continued throughout.

Finally, the Association, in 1926, pub-

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lished a comprehensive bulletin on guidance. This bulletin has been one of the most important pieces of literature issued by the Association. Its careful analysis of the guidance situation and its offering of many practical methods and devices created remarkable and unusual demand and two editions have been sold out. Possibly this pamphlet on guidance has been one of the most influential means of crystallizing attention and practice in guidance work.

Another special committee reported at the second national meeting. This was the committee on the organization of student social life. The committee presented an analysis of the social situation in the typical high school and suggested a number of methods for correct management and wise development of social programs. The report was presented by Principal E. J. Eaton of North High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

Some secondary-school men have had the idea that the emphasis of the Association was altogether too decidedly upon senior-high-school work. Those who have been most intimately connected with the Association have felt that a very definite and adequate attempt has always been made to give worthy recognition to the junior-high-school movement. This recognition was observable as early as the second annual meeting. At this time a special committee, headed by Mr. Paul C. Stetson of South High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan, gave a report of his committee on the junior-high-school curriculum. This committee outlined the conditions which obtained and made a number of significant recommendations in regard to the reorganization of curriculum materials in the junior and senior high schools.

The foregoing sentence stated the early emphasis of the junior high school as a part of the secondary-school situation. The broad character of the National Association's interest and work was also demonstrated as early as the second meeting by the re-

port of a special committee on the junior college. Some have thought that the junior college has been only recently recognized in the National Association, but Mr. J. Stanley Brown, principal of the Joliet Township High School and Junior College at Joliet, Illinois, gave a rather complete report of the junior-college situation at this meeting. This report included definite information as to the best practices in almost every phase of the organization and administration of the junior college.

## BROADENING THE PROGRAM

Early in the history of the organization, the work, as demonstrated through the use of published materials, was broadening beyond the scope of the yearbook. The latter started with the end of the first year of the organization's existence. It has come out regularly since that time and has established for itself the unique position of being, as far as it can be ascertained, the only yearbook which comes out within a week or ten days following the national convention. It has been something of a standing joke among the members of the National Association that the yearbook containing the complete program of the Association's annual meeting would be waiting in their mail boxes upon their return from the national convention. This promptness in printing has made the influence of the yearbook much more pronounced and effective. This unusual efficiency goes to the credit of the long-time executive secretary, Mr. H. V. Church.

For the last several years the Association has published annually at least five bulletins. Some of these bulletins have contained abstracts of the current new books of the period and also abstracts of the leading articles in the various educational periodicals of current issue. These abstracts have brought a convenient and helpful service to the principal's desk. In a few instances, pamphlets have been issued con-

taining digests of unpublished master's theses from various schools of education. These digests have been made from carefully selected theses consisting of interesting and unusual material which would not otherwise be available.

The Association has also published each year a rather complete directory of membership. These directory lists have been particularly useful for various educational contacts which have been found desirable among principals and for use of schools of education and other educational institutions and organization.

Recently the Association has made available to its membership a unique and economical type of group insurance arranged upon a distinctly individual basis, the low rates being due to the group consideration. This plan has met with considerable success and offers to school men an unusual opportunity to profit from the privilege of being a member of the Association.

Through the work of several committees, certain standardized forms have been made available for country-wide usage. The transcript of record form and the permanent personnel card have been especially successful. The former has tended to standardize the records of grades for college entrance and many colleges have authorized the use of these blanks as official forms. Also, they have been especially helpful in transferring records from one school to another. The very large use of this form has made it possible for the Association to sell large quantities at exceedingly low rates and very considerable business has developed in this respect. The permanent personnel record is of comparatively recent date and is just now getting well started. This form, also, will be of particular advantage in standardizing the school records. Several different committees have worked on the standardization of school forms.

The last few years the Association has had a standing committee on research. This

committee, under the leadership of Dr. Judd of the University of Chicago, has reported annually to the Association and has carried on a very interesting and successful development through the establishment of a number of discussion centers throughout the country.

These discussion centers are comparatively small, informal groups of principals who find it convenient to meet together, usually once per month throughout the year. Most of these discussion centers have developed in the suburban areas of our large cities. There are some growing out of long-established groups which have heretofore operated as clubs for certain regions or within certain cities. The national committee suggests topics for research and submits certain experiments which are to be attempted; also, outlines and procedures are sent out to the various discussion centers. The centers, after suitable experiment and discussion, send back to the national committee definite reports of accomplishment.

This new work of the Association has made an interesting start. There is still much opportunity for wide development of this type of activity. The advantages seem to be large which concerted study and action may bring in the way of desirable standardization and of the acquirement of conclusions from a sufficiently large field to present especially meaningful returns. It is very much hoped by the national committee that there will be increasing interest in the organization of additional discussion centers. Any who are interested in organizing such a group should get into communication with Dr. C. H. Judd, School of Education, The University of Chicago.

#### NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

One of the most successful enterprises created by the National Association has been the development of the National Honor Society. The idea was suggested almost at the start. There was considerable

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discussion and finally a permanent committee was selected to work out a plan for the honor society. From the first there was a remarkable interest in the development of the National Society.

Immediately upon adoption of the report of the committee which set up working plans for this society, there was a widespread demand for membership. The executive committee for several years gave considerable attention to the problems of the National Society.

Although the Society has a national council which naturally functions in all of the relations to problems and activities of the Society, the control of the organization has remained distinctly with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The members of the council are elected from the general association. The latter has published for the National Honor Society a number of pamphlets explaining the purpose, outlining the advantages and possibilities of local chapters, and offering sample rituals of induction. The Society has been an astounding success and now has more than 1,000 chapters operating. Over fifty thousand high-school graduates wear the coveted key, emblematic of the highest secondary-school honor attainable.

Recently the interest and demand have been so great for a junior honor society that three years ago such a society was authorized by the National Association and now operates in much the same manner as the senior society.

The National Association has control of the sale of all the emblems and the granting of charters to local chapters. The management of the Society's affairs has been unusually well done and is a source of pride to those who have had contact with it.

**OTHER WORK OF THE ASSOCIATION**

The limits of this article forbid anything like adequate treatment of the many and varied activities performed by special com-

mittees during the life of the organization. There have been a number of significant and helpful studies and reports made by these committees. Any principal who wishes to investigate more intimately the work of the Association will find the annual year-book particularly helpful. Of late, the programs have been sectioned in respect to the junior and senior high schools and the junior college. There are committees working in each of these fields.

The future of the Association, now the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, has never been more promising than at the present time. A wide degree of interest and participation among all those who are working in the various levels of secondary education is being increasingly manifested. The department has now definitely demonstrated its power and possibilities. Much should and will be expected from it in the near future.

**AFFILIATION WITH THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**

For some years the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was a complete entity in itself. Although the original impetus for the Association had developed out of the interest of a number of principals in the Department of Superintendence meetings, there had not been the recognition from the older organization or from the National Education Association which gave help to the forming of the new organization. Not until the National Association of Secondary-School Principals had become a very distinctive section of the annual winter meeting of the National Education Association were there any evidences of a desire for incorporation with the older organizations. During the early years of the Association the officers of the Department of Superintendence were especially helpful in offering their services in connection with the meeting places and other accommodations.

As the Association grew in size, a number of difficult problems appeared. It became increasingly evident that certain advantages would be obtained to all concerned if the National Association should become a definitely recognized department of the National Education Association. The last meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was held at St. Louis in February, 1927. The following year the Association became a recognized

department of the N.E.A. At the same time the National Section of Secondary Education of the N.E.A. was incorporated into the new department. This was accomplished by vote of the latter at the Seattle meeting of 1927. The new department met for the first time at Boston in 1928. For the first time in its history there was held a joint session with the Department of Superintendence, which was probably the largest and most significant evening meeting of the program.

## **THE INITIATION OF A PROGRAM OF DIRECTED STUDY IN LATIN**

CARRIE A. PARSONS

*EDITOR'S NOTE: As instructor in Latin in the Peabody Demonstration School of Peabody College, Mrs. Parsons is doing an excellent piece of work in an extensive program of directed study being carried out by that institution.*

J. R.

In September 1931, we initiated a program of directed study in Peabody Demonstration School. Administrative problems rendered necessary a class period of one hour, five minutes of which is used for passing. The faculty agreed that with the hour class period the pupils of the first two years of junior high school should not be required to study outside the classroom, unless for some reason a pupil should fall behind his group. A home-study period of about an hour a day for pupils in the last year of junior high school and of two hours or more a day for pupils in the senior high school was agreed upon. There was no limit set, however, to the time which an ambitious pupil might devote to study, since we had no desire to limit the thorough, painstaking student who might wish to cover as much ground as the quicker pupil.

There was no rule laid down as to how much of the class period should be devoted to study and how much to recitation. Each teacher was left free to decide this matter for himself according to the needs of his particular group. In actual practice the division of time has varied greatly even in

the same class. But as a rule the more advanced the class is the longer the period of individual study and the shorter the time devoted to group activities. For example, in the beginners' Latin classes the larger part of the class period during the first two months has been spent in oral work, introduction of new words, forms, principles of syntax, and drill, all of which are learning activities that are most important in the first stages of learning a language. Only from ten to twenty minutes has been devoted to individual study. The study period for this group is being gradually lengthened, however, so that they will soon be on the same basis as the more advanced classes.

In the more advanced classes during the first ten days or two weeks much of the class period was spent in group activities and instruction with group practice in the art of comprehending and of translating the Latin author being studied. But after the majority of the pupils seemed competent to proceed alone, the study period was lengthened until an average of more than half the class period was given to supervised study. The teacher spends this supervised study

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period in watching the methods of study, offering suggestions of a constructive nature to the individual student, and assisting the poorly prepared student when necessary, being always on guard against assistance when the problem could be solved by the pupil with a little more effort on his part.

The lengthened study period brought out very clearly the difference in ability of the pupils. In the Latin department, provision for the quick pupil was made by giving permission to read supplementary Latin readers or books in English on topics relating to Roman life. These books are kept in the classroom and are designed primarily for use during the class period, though the pupils may take a book home overnight whenever they wish. In one group the quick pupils were given maximum reading assignments, the reading of which was optional. This provision to keep the quick pupil busy developed naturally into a contract plan of assignment. The contract plan was explained to the pupils at the end of about a week and a half and contracts on C and B levels assigned. The assignment of the A or highest contract was reserved until after the first test revealed the quality of work that each pupil was doing on the C or B level.

The satisfactory completion of the C contract entitles the pupil to a grade of C, of the B contract to a grade of B, and of the A contract to a grade of A. The C contract consists of the minimum requirement for a given course and is composed almost entirely of material from the text. The B contract as a rule consists of the material contained in the C contract and of additional reading material in Latin either from the text or from supplementary Latin readers. The A contract consists of the work required for the B contract and of additional material of a different type. This additional material is largely creative work and is based entirely on material outside the text. The contracts assigned are generally for a

period of two weeks though occasionally a longer contract is given.

When the contracts were assigned for the first time any pupil was allowed to attempt the more difficult B contract who wished to do so. But when the first contracts were due and the quality of work tested, the pupil whose work was poor in quality was forbidden to continue the extra work of the B contract until the quality of his work in the C contract had improved. After the first test those pupils who had completed the B contract with a grade of 95 or more were allowed to do the additional work of the A contract. The type of additional work to be done in the A contract was then explained to the pupils and topics for study were suggested, but each individual pupil was left free to follow his own initiative as far as possible.

The quality of work required for a given grade is as high or higher than under the noncontract method, and the quantity of work required for a B or A grade greater. Since the C pupil need not spread his time and energy over a large amount of material but confines his study to the minimum, he can learn the minimum more thoroughly. Roughly speaking, a grade of C is given to the pupil who has learned 80 per cent of the minimum, C+ to the one who has learned 90 per cent, and C- to the one who has learned 75 per cent. No pupil whose grade for the minimum requirement or C contract falls below 90 is allowed to attempt the additional material in the B contract. No pupil whose grade on the B contract falls below 95 is allowed to attempt the A contract. The A and B students therefore must keep up both the quantity and quality of their work. We have tried to include in the higher contracts material that is interesting as well as instructive so that the nature of the material offered for study has been an incentive to complete the lower contract. To me by far the most encourag-

ing result of the plan has been that many of the pupils seem to wish to complete the lower contract so that they may be allowed to do the work required in the higher contract and not merely to make a higher grade.

No contract assignments have been given in the beginners' classes yet, since we thought it wise to precede the contract assignments by three or four months of group study. In the advanced ninth grade and in the tenth grade the C contract includes the minimum reading requirement for the grade, all vocabulary drills, principles of syntax, form drills, derivative studies, prose exercises based on the reading material, some memory work, and some studies in historical background. This material is easily divided into small units which can be covered in one or two days, so that the C contract differs little from an ordinary daily assignment except that the quicker pupil may proceed at his own rate and have some free time to devote to the work of the higher contracts.

A class discussion of the material which has been covered by all the class is held almost every day. This class discussion seems necessary as a check on misinterpretation of the text. It affords an opportunity for discussion of the content of the reading material, and of the background necessary for its comprehension. It also gives the teacher a chance to bring out many fine points that the immature student would probably overlook, and to motivate the reading of the advance assignment.

The pupils in these classes who keep up the quality of their work in the C contract to the required grade may attempt the extra reading in the B contract. This reading is in Latin and is taken either from an interesting portion of the text or from a supplementary reader. A test on the extra reading for the B contract is given at the same time that the test for the C contract is given. We have found it more convenient to give tests to the entire group at stated intervals

when the contracts are due, though there are some advantages in the plan of giving tests separately in the different contracts to the individual pupil whenever he has completed a unit of work.

The additional work required to complete the A contract in these two grades differs in character from that required in the lower contracts. No pupil whose work in the B contract does not average 95 is allowed to attempt the A contract. The pupil who does attempt to complete the A contract is expected to spend about an hour a week in addition to the time devoted to the B contract in supplementary reading or in creative work of some type. The opportunity is offered in the A contract of reading in English for background, of reading in Latin, and of writing original compositions in Latin. The English reading has formed the basis for oral reports to the class, for written themes, and for drawings and models illustrating various phases of Roman life. The reading in Latin has been from easy readers or from simple Latin plays. Interesting portions of these have been read to the class. The best of the original compositions have furnished supplementary Latin material to be read by the class. These pupils are reading a large number of different reference books on Roman private life, on Roman history and mythology, are using a good classical dictionary, and are reading from a number of simple Latin readers. They are gaining a broad view of Roman life and are giving much of it to the other members of the class through reports, posters, models, etc.

In the senior Latin class, which is reading Vergil, the introductory lessons covered the first week and a half. During these lessons almost the entire period was spent in group study directed by the teacher. The reading of the poem was motivated by a brief survey of the background of Vergil's time and of the time portrayed in the poem. The beauty of the Latin was shown by metrical

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reading and comparison with a similar poem in English. The most important characteristics in which the *Aeneid* differs from prose were shown by comparison with a short selection from an English poem. The reading, interpretation, and translation of the poem was then taken up as a group project directed by the teacher. During these preparatory lessons the assignment for individual study was a review of what had been read by the group. No assignment for advanced reading was made until after about seventy lines of the poem had been studied in this way and the teacher felt that the pupils had gained the power to read alone.

The contract plan of assignment was explained to the class on the first day that the pupils began to read independently. The C contract includes the metrical reading and translation of a certain number of lines of the poem. The B contract includes, in addition to the metrical reading and translation of the passage, ability to explain the syntax, figures of speech, and the historical or mythological allusions contained in the passage read. The tests given at the completion of a contract are on two levels, one for those attempting the C contract and a more comprehensive test for those attempting the B contract. Those students who have completed the B contract with a grade of 95 may attempt the A contract. The pupil is expected to spend at least an hour a week on the additional material required for the A contract. The A contracts are of two types, the short project or contract which can be completed in two weeks and the long project or contract which requires several months for completion.

Most of the Vergil students who are attempting the A contract are at work on long contracts. Reports on the progress of these projects are due every two weeks. The following list includes the projects now under way:

1. The metrical translation of a portion of

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## Book I

2. Reading and making an outline of Mackail's *Vergil and His Meaning to the World of Today*
3. Reading and making an outline of a book on mythology
4. Making a notebook with drawings and descriptions of different types of ancient ships
5. Making a mythological notebook illustrated with pictures
6. Making a mythological notebook illustrated with drawings

After a trial of ten weeks we feel that the use of the contract plan of assignment combined with the period of directed study is producing excellent results. There are fewer failures than formerly, the average and slow pupils are learning the minimum requirement more thoroughly, every student is gaining the ability to read and comprehend Latin for himself, there is little or no copying or dishonest work, and the outlook of all the pupils is being broadened by the larger amount of material of an historical-cultural nature which is being brought to their attention. The advantage to the slow pupil has been greater than to the average pupil because of the feeling of mastery that he has gained since the task which he is attempting is not beyond his capacity. But it is the quick pupil who has received the greatest benefit, since the amount of work and the type of work required in the higher contracts serves as a challenge to him to put forth his best efforts and he is working more nearly to the limit of his capacity than he has ever done.

## THE OLD AND THE NEW IN MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

ROBERT D. COLE

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** As the head of the modern-language department in one of America's famous private secondary schools for several years, and with rather extensive travel abroad, Dr. Cole brings a wealth of training and experience to bear on this much discussed question. His recent book published by D. Appleton and Company, entitled, *Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, establishes him as a leading authority in this field and his article will be read with keen interest. Dr. Cole is professor of secondary education at the University of North Dakota.

J. R.

The past decade has witnessed more or less searching investigations into practically every subject in the secondary-school program. One of the most comprehensive of these is that known as the "Modern Foreign Language Study," initiated in 1924 and completed in 1927, the results of which are just beginning to affect modern-language instruction. Financed generously by the Carnegie Corporation, it was carried on in the most approved fashion. No one, least of all an "educationist," can fail to be impressed by a set-up including a committee on direction and control, an executive committee, regional committees, a committee on investigation, special investigators, and even a special adviser in educational psychology.

One result has been the publication, principally by the Macmillan Company but also by the University of Toronto Press, of an enormous mass of the most valuable factual data. Another has been the development of a different method of teaching modern languages. The third has been a controversy over method between those who may be termed the progressives and who believe that the results of the Study call for changes and those who may be called the conservatives and who believe that no change is necessary.

To list briefly the results of the survey, to set forth the principles of the new method of teaching, and to comment upon the differences of opinion from the more or less detached point of view of a former secondary-school teacher of modern languages now turned professor of secondary education is the purpose of this paper.

In twenty sizable volumes and hundreds

of magazine articles we have at our disposal invaluable data bearing upon every conceivable phase of modern-language teaching. One volume offers us carefully arranged information concerning the enrollments in the various foreign languages in the United States. Two others analyze present conditions in the training of modern-language teachers in the United States, Canada, and abroad, and make recommendations concerning this important problem. The preparation of standardized achievement and prognostic tests was a major concern of the Study, tests which were administered upon a most extensive scale. The construction of these tests and the interpretation of the results of their administration are described in minute detail. Word books and idiom lists, based upon counts running into the millions, are made available in French, German, and Spanish. An annotated bibliography of modern-language methodology is another most valuable contribution. Buswell's laboratory study of the reading of modern languages is a model of its kind. Descriptions of minor experiments in methodology and an almost infinite variety of other studies have appeared in the volumes of the Study and are still appearing in modern-language periodicals. The effect of the stupendous amount of work already done and the impetus given to further research along fruitful lines is incalculable.

Even the disagreement which has resulted from the publication of Algernon Coleman's summary and synthesis of the Study, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*,<sup>1</sup> cannot fail to have a whole-

<sup>1</sup> New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929.

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some effect in the long run, distasteful though it was in the beginning because of the shrewish tone of the first attacks. Fortunately, the last attack on the Coleman report<sup>2</sup> is more moderate and professional in tone, and gives one an opportunity to examine dispassionately the fundamental differences of opinion which apparently exist among modern-language teachers.

The writer cannot agree with those who seek to minimize or gloss over the fact that a decided difference of opinion does exist between Coleman and his followers on the one hand, and Price, Morgan, Mercier, and their followers on the other. To him there is a real issue at stake which may affect seriously the future of modern-language teaching. Therefore, it is important to examine all the evidence at hand and to compare the conflicting claims in the light of present aims of secondary education. In the language of the war-time communiqués, one might say that while steady progress is being made towards the attainment of the general objectives of secondary education, the advance in the modern-language sector is being held up by the uncoördinated staff work of the leaders.

The Coleman report (page 107) gives as immediate objectives of the work of the first two years the progressive development:

1. Of the ability to read books, newspapers, and magazines in the modern language within the scope of the student's interests and intellectual powers.
2. Of such knowledge of the grammar of the language as is demonstrated to be necessary for reading with comprehension.
3. Of the ability to pronounce correctly, to understand, and to use the language orally within the limits of class materials.
4. Of a knowledge of the foreign country, past and present, and of a special interest in the life and characteristics of its people.
5. Of increased knowledge of the derivations

<sup>2</sup>Louis J. A. Mercier, "The Problem of the Integration of Modern-Language Activities," *French Review*, IV, March 1931, pp. 386-396. Referred to in this article as the "counter-manifesto." Page references in this paper are to these two discussions.

and meanings of English words, of the principles and leading facts of English grammar, and of the relationships between the foreign language and English.

It will be noted immediately these objectives are quite different from the reading-writing-speaking-understanding objective of the ordinary course. The primary emphasis is upon reading. The results of several experiments dealing with the development of reading ability in the modern foreign languages and in the vernacular (pages 139-163) lead Coleman to believe that the amount of reading in modern-language classes should be increased and that the results of all other types of class exercise must converge towards reading (page 170). This procedure would necessitate a shift of emphasis in the first year from a highly intensive study of grammar and of a comparatively small amount of reading to the reading of a comparatively large amount of easy, graduated material, and the study of grammar from a functional rather than an analytic point of view (page 274).

One may ask "If we wish to try out the type of course recommended by Coleman, where are we to find textbooks? He gives us the philosophical basis, but refrains from setting up a syllabus or outline of courses." It is true that such books are not plentiful as yet, but we do have one series in each language,<sup>3</sup> and others may be expected to appear in the near future.

In the series which have appeared, each of the grammars in French, German, and Spanish is constructed from the recognition point of view; that is, each grammatical topic is selected on the basis of its reading value only and is introduced in connected reading material. Grammar is learned inductively and the essential points driven home by means of numerous exercises in the text and in a work book. The basic

<sup>3</sup>Published by the University of Chicago Press.

vocabulary in French contains 677 words and 105 idioms, selected as far as possible from those having high range in the word and idiom counts prepared by the Study. In conjunction with the very first grammar lesson proper, after ten lessons on pronunciation, the students begin an easy reader keyed in vocabulary to accompany the grammar. New words are introduced very gradually, a few only in each lesson. By the end of the first year in French the student has mastered a vocabulary of some 1,600 words, carefully selected on the basis of frequency of occurrence in French literature of various kinds, and has read some 300 pages of French.

Those who signed the counter-manifesto will have nothing of all this except that they recognize that reading ability should be the central objective of a secondary-school course (page 389). But reading is defined as the ability "to be able to understand accurately the meaning of a text in language and content at the level of high-school pupils." Where Coleman emphasizes "cursory reading" or "reading to get the main idea," his opponents favor reading of the "study" type exclusively, even going so far as to maintain that the quantity of intensive reading recommended by the Committee of Twelve be increased where possible (page 388).

Apparently there is to be no reading for pleasure, no attempt to learn something about the foreign country, no use of word or idiom counts to guard against the very real danger of introducing new and unfamiliar words too rapidly. Since the reading is to be intensive, one may assume that each new word encountered is to be learned regardless of whether it is a word of frequent or infrequent occurrence; and this despite the increasing body of evidence to show that the grammars and reading books in common use vary widely in the scope and nature of their vocabulary. No mention is made of a common basic vocabulary.

Let us examine another recommendation advanced by the counter-manifesto. "On the basis of years of actual classroom experience, the undersigned believe that the power to pronounce well and to control orally, as well as in writing, the essential grammar material should be the primary aim of the first year's work" (pages 389-390). One regrets that the writer of the counter-manifesto does not present evidence other than personal opinion to substantiate this point. That some factual evidence exists is plain to one who has read carefully all the articles, letters, and replies that have appeared in periodical literature. It is a pity that this evidence is not collected in one place to defend the "statement of principles." If some of the critics had actually tried out the reading approach and found it unsatisfactory, their experience would have greater weight, but no, they condemn the proposal without trial.

And what is meant by "essential grammar material"? In one place it is defined as "the grammar constructions of the high-school program" (page 388), and in another we find that it is based upon the *Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America* written in 1898. Has there been no change in over thirty years with respect to the grammar which should be taught to secondary-school pupils? It has been precisely during those same thirty years that the secondary school has developed into what it is today. Coleman, however, would emphasize the grammar needed in reading, not grammar for the sake of grammar.

The sentence quoted above continues "[the undersigned believe] that the development of this power [to control orally, as well as in writing, the essential grammar material] should be continued during the second year, that the development of reading power should be gradually emphasized as much as possible, and that permanent reading power will depend in large measure

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upon the thoroughness with which the oral and written work has been done" (page 390). Moreover, "the methods of a standard course which seeks to develop the power to read directly for accurate comprehension must not sacrifice grammatical analysis or oral and written exercises in the foreign language, as these are necessary both to develop the power of accurate comprehension and to ensure the linguistic future of the pupils" (pages 390-391).

The above excerpts from the counter-manifesto show rather clearly that its signers are not thinking in terms of the present conception of secondary education. One reason why Coleman advocated a change of emphasis in the teaching of modern languages was because the figures for 1925 show that out of every 100 students who began French, German, and Spanish, only 57 continued it for a second year, and only 17 for a third year. It seems just a bit wasteful and hardly in accord with present educational theory to assure the linguistic future of the 17 per cent who continue their modern-language study by requiring a course of such a nature that the remaining 83 per cent have no such future.

One can agree thoroughly with the conclusion of the counter-manifesto to the effect that further experiments should be instituted to determine the value of various procedures for the attainment of reading ability in many types of situations. For example, some of our vexing problems might be solved if the director of modern languages in a city such as New York, Cleveland, or Los Angeles would set up an experiment over two years' time with equated groups, one using the reading approach and the other the grammar-intensive reading approach. We cannot decide which is better without this experimental work.

It must not be inferred from what has been said that the present writer would advocate either of the two methods discussed as the only method possible or even

preferable. He does believe that a change of some sort in modern-language teaching is desirable in the light of the facts set forth by the Study, but believes further experimentation is necessary to say positively what that change shall be. He does believe that the type of course recommended by Coleman has decided possibilities in *some* situations, inasmuch as it may be terminal or preparatory; terminal for those who drop language study at the end of two years, preparatory for those who continue. That it is best in *all* situations does not follow. The reverse even is true, for a study of six selected schools in the Coleman report (pages 248-267) shows that superior results were attained by widely different methods.

A threefold criticism may be made of the counter-manifesto and of its signers. In the first place, they, too, seem to believe that linguistic salvation is possible by only one means—the type of course they recommend. In the second place, in their eagerness to discredit the Coleman report, they seemingly reject all the other valuable data collected by the Study. The only commendatory reference to any of the results of the Study is to the report of Professor Purin, himself a signer of the document, on the training of teachers (page 392). In the third place, they do not show that they know, or at least they do not accept, current theory concerning secondary education.

Their tremendous concern for the linguistic future of students, their acceptance of the program of the Committee of Twelve as a basis for secondary-school work, and the whole reactionary tone of their "statement" proves this last point. They apparently assume that the secondary school of today is still the selective, college-preparatory institution that it was in 1898 when the Report of the Committee of Twelve appeared. The present secondary school however, exists to give every child of secondary-school age, each according to his interest and capacity,

that education which will best fit him for life in a democracy. The counter-manifesto takes no cognizance of this fact, but would insist upon one course, college-preparatory in nature, for all who wish to study modern languages.

Perhaps the answer to the controversy lies in organizing two types of modern-language courses; one of the type favored by the counter-manifesto for those who will continue their modern-language study beyond the second year, and a different type of course for those who will not. At all events, a secondary-school course is not justified which is not organized to present material in itself worth while to the extent that it is pursued. The course recommended by the counter-manifesto does not meet this criterion, while that recommended by Coleman does.

That the standard modern foreign-language course should be at least a three-year course, as advocated by the signers of the counter-manifesto, is satisfactory enough from the point of view of modern-language teachers. They are almost a unit, as are teachers of other subjects, in desiring more time in which to accomplish their aims. They certainly need it if the fourfold aim is to continue. But there is another side to the question. Current educational philosophy demands that each subject justify its position in the secondary-school curriculum on the basis of its contribution to the general aims of education. Right or wrong as it may be, a general sentiment has grown up to the effect that in ordinary cases two years of modern-language study are all that can be allowed in the public-school curriculum. However desirable a lengthened period of study may be, there is little indication that it will be translated into a reality except under the most favorable circumstances.

It may be that enrollment in modern-language courses should be restricted to su-

perior students. That must certainly be the case if the course suggested by the counter-manifesto is to be the only type offered, for it is too hard for average and inferior pupils. "Lack of linguistic capacity" is the principal reason, according to modern-language teachers, why pupils do not make better progress. There may be some truth in the assertion, especially when the aims of the course have been too ambitious; yet an experiment carried on under the auspices of the Study argues against the existence of a special language capacity. Moreover, astonishingly good results have been obtained by gifted teachers even with apparently poor student material, especially under some of the plans for individualized instruction.

In evaluating the Coleman report, the counter-manifesto, or any future proposal concerning modern-language teaching, teachers and administrators will do well to keep in mind the following excerpt from an article by W. V. Kaulfers,<sup>4</sup> for it sums up the essential philosophy which the present writer believes should underlie changes in modern-language courses:

The problem of foreign-language instruction today is not that of fitting students to the courses, but of fitting courses to students. Methods, regulations, and requirements can be changed within a decade by the same authority by which they were originally introduced; human capacities, interests, and abilities, as the consequences of a profound biological and sociological evolution, cannot. There is little prospect for an improvement in the foreign-language situation as long as the predominant method of instruction consists in teaching a foreign tongue in terms of a second medium equally unfamiliar to the students—that is, the abstract technical lingo of formal grammar. Nor will the future bring relief while first-year courses are made twice and even three times as difficult as third- and fourth-year work for the mere sake of rushing students through the length and breadth of grammar in order that

<sup>4</sup> "Why Prognose in Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XIV, January 1930, p. 301.

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the instructor may the more readily teach the literary classics of the language. The only solution lies in the reorganization of foreign-language courses to equalize the difficulty of learning activities from year to year, in teaching subject matter functionally and concretely instead of abstractly and descriptively, in appealing to the actual life interests of the students instead of catering merely to an ill-defined "cultural" or exclusively college-preparatory function, and in

replacing with scientific concepts the outworn pseudopsychological notions which continue to constitute the working hypotheses of contemporary foreign-language teaching. All the theories of prognosis and all the regulations and requirements of foreign-language departments may diametrically oppose such a reorganization, but they will never alter by an iota the facts of scientific investigation, much less the fundamental workings of students' minds.

## DEVELOPING THE POWER AND HABIT OF THINKING IN THE TEACHING OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

RALPH W. HALLER

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Ralph W. Haller is vice principal of Morris High School in New York City. His specialty is the teaching of modern foreign languages, and it is very interesting to find a man of his interests expressing so emphatically the point of view that he holds with regard to modern foreign-language values.*

A. D. W.

Relatively few years ago Gibraltar appeared no more secure than did modern languages in our secondary-school curriculum. Today, no subject is probably less secure. In the last few decades mass education and compulsory school laws have created conditions which make present-day modern-language teaching of gravely doubtful general worth. An evaluation of the results which we are obtaining will depend to a great extent on the accepted aim and objectives of education.

A commonly accepted aim, and one which seems to be in accord with my own belief, is that the business of education is to develop in pupils the ability to participate effectively in afterschool life. Now, how, under existing conditions, does modern-language teaching in secondary schools contribute to the development of such ability?

It is a fact that about 75 per cent of the pupils who study a modern foreign language drop it without completing more than four terms. I cannot believe that, as modern languages are usually taught, most of these

pupils at the end of four terms have anything worth while to show for two years of work. They cannot speak the language, they cannot write it, they cannot read it, they cannot comprehend it. The inclusion, during these terms, of a large amount of informational material gives them some worth-while content, and there will be certain by-products accruing which are common to all good teaching, but all of these desirable results put together cannot, in my estimation, justify two years of study.

At the present time, there is a movement to develop early an ability to read the foreign language for enjoyment. With the most effective of classroom procedures, I do not believe that this objective can be attained in the brief period of two years. Few pupils at the age of fourteen appreciate even their mother tongue. Why expect miraculous results with a foreign language? A minimum requirement of three years of a language would improve this situation.

I hold no brief for the present extensive study of languages. On the contrary, I

firmlly believe that most pupils would profit immeasurably more by devoting the time now given to French, German, or Spanish to some practical type of work that would leave more contacts with everyday life activities. However, with present college entrance requirements, and our inadequate means of determining abilities and values, we meet the grave responsibility of giving adequate value to these four terms of so-called "linguistic training."

Pure subject matter in almost any course of study in our secondary-school curriculum has little permanent value. Any body of knowledge changes so rapidly that what we teach today will probably be of little use ten years hence. The outcomes of learning that will prove of permanent value to our boys and girls are correct attitudes, the ability to interpret the new in the light of the old, and to adapt old ideas to new and changing facts—that is, deliberate thoughtfulness.

If we cannot hope to provide an adequate language foundation for three quarters of our pupils studying French, Spanish, German, Italian, we, at least, should develop an interest in the cultural, political, and social aspects of the countries, and should, beyond all else, cultivate in every boy and girl the power and habit of reflective thinking. The development of this habit of being thoughtful should be stressed as one of our prime objectives, if our subject is to integrate effectively in the great business of education. If we can and do attain this aim, we will have gone far towards justifying the present general teaching of foreign languages.

Psychology teaches that human beings are always thinking. But thinking on the lower or so-called perceptual levels is of little value. Memorizing, recognizing, repeating what a textbook or teacher has said are types of thinking that will be of little use to the pupil when confronted with new situations. He must be taught to think on the

higher levels which are so vitally essential to meeting life situations successfully, the levels of generalized thinking, reflective thinking, relational thinking, scientific thinking.

Now how can we, while we are teaching a modern language, develop this desired habit, and where in our course of study are opportunities offered for teaching it?

To teach any habit effectively, the habit must be made a major aim and must be generalized. The class as well as the teacher must be conscious of it at all times. There will be no carry-over, if it is brought to the focus of consciousness only occasionally. It must be brought into prominence every recitation period, and must be held in the foreground, along with the linguistic requirements, throughout the entire period. Every loose answer must be checked by some remark, such as: "You are not thinking clearly." "Do all of you agree with that answer?" "Are you sure that is what you want to say?" "Now, just why did you say that?" etc. A thoughtless answer must never pass unnoticed, and no faulty thought process must be allowed to go unchallenged.

The hope of developing in pupils the power and habit of straight thinking lies not primarily in courses of study, in arrangement of textbooks, or in formal and oftentimes stilted teaching devices, but in resourceful classroom teaching. No chairman, no principal can prepare a satisfactory recitation plan to meet this need. Above all else, the teacher himself must have acquired the habit of thinking. It is useless to expect an instructor to teach boys and girls how to think clearly if his own thought processes are faulty, if he is not thoroughly imbued with the idea himself, and does not every moment have the aim of logical thinking consciously before him. He must be alert to seize every opportunity offered in the course of a recitation. The teacher who would succeed in teaching pupils how to

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reason must be capable of adapting any pre-conceived lesson plan to the exigencies of the moment.

Now just where can generalized, reflective, scientific thinking be taught in the modern-language class? To whatever extent grammar be taught, whether inductively or deductively, the process calls for generalized thinking. Any recitation will provide a number of opportunities to apply a rule as well as to induce one. "What is the case?" "Why is it dative?" "What should be the ending?" "Why is the verb placed at the end of the clause?" etc.—thought-provoking questions always. Let us use the scientific method in so far as it is practical. I am, however, not a believer in the all too extensive use of induction. Deductive processes may often be preferable in that they save much time, and, if carried through to completion, are equally productive of sound thinking.

In reading the foreign language, and in translating into the vernacular there is constant opportunity for accurate, reflective thinking. "Does your translation accurately give the meaning of that word?" "Which of the two suggested meanings expresses the idea more clearly?" "Why do you think your translation fits into the idea of the previous sentence?" Questions of this sort will provoke reflective thought. Constant attention to carefulness, thoughtfulness, and accuracy in replies will tend to produce correct habits of thinking, and will, I am convinced, at the same time net the pupil a maximum residuum of modern-language content. While memory may play the largest rôle in the acquisition of a language, the processes of recall, association, comparison, generalization, application, etc., which reflective thinking includes, will not only fix and make more permanent the language content, but will develop tendencies and habits that will be applicable long after language content has been forgotten.

This brings us to the moot question of the transfer of training. In recent years, the pendulum has swung back somewhat and most psychologists concede that qualities, traits, and habits, if sufficiently generalized and kept in the focus of consciousness, can be made to carry over into new situations. The activity, however, must not remain on the plane of incidental learning. If in all his classes throughout four years a boy has been accustomed to think carefully, accurately, through every detail, I am firmly convinced that when he meets an entirely new and different situation in life, he will follow the same mental procedure.

There is a rather decided movement afoot at present towards laying the main stress in modern-language teaching on reading for enjoyment. Developing such ability necessitates a great deal of extensive reading. The movement has not been tried out sufficiently long to test its value, but there is a grave question in my mind whether this aim, especially during the first two years of high-school work, is not conducive to inaccurate, careless, slipshod, hit-or-miss habits. Is it not productive of a tendency towards approximation, and is it not true that such tendencies are diametrically opposed to what successful and effective participation in any life activity demands—thoroughness and accuracy?

I am aware of the fact that there are many worth-while incidental values in modern-language teaching. To me the direct values are less evident. From the standpoint of content value I can in no way justify the teaching of modern foreign languages to the number of secondary-school boys and girls now studying them. Informational and cultural material is unquestionably of direct value, but a critic will point out that such material can be acquired far more easily and with far less waste of time in the vernacular than in the foreign tongue. By no stretch of the imagination can I see pupils

after two years of foreign-language study in our secondary schools reading this foreign language for enjoyment. And surely no one will be sufficiently irresponsible to contend that these pupils will be able to do any effective speaking or writing of a language in two years. The late war punctured all such fallacious claims and hopes. What have we to offer in their stead?

In concluding, let me reemphasize that what I have said is directed largely against the teaching of that large group who never

get beyond the second year of a language. I realize that I may appear to be tearing down idols, but if my conclusions seem somewhat iconoclastic, I hope I am leaving at least one constructive thought. It is my conviction that while we are giving 25 per cent of our pupils a solid foundation in language abilities, we must consciously develop in the entire group, as far as their abilities permit, that most valuable asset for full, effective living; namely, the power and habit of sound, logical, reflective, thinking.

## PLAN FOR THE APPRAISEMENT OF PUPIL PROGRESS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND

CHARLES F. TOWNE

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Charles F. Towne is assistant superintendent of schools in charge of secondary education in Providence, Rhode Island. In the article which follows he sets up an interesting distinction between two types of activity in junior high school. He distinguishes between cumulative and noncumulative subjects and indicates a difference in the treatment of these two types of subjects which makes it easier to provide adequate guidance for junior-high-school pupils.*

A. D. W.

We talk a great deal about individual differences and the necessity of cultivating in each pupil the attitude of success. Yet our machinery for the appraisement of pupil progress still tends to emphasize the idea of failure and the necessity of repetition as a penalty and a disgrace. In our efforts to lessen the tyranny of these ideas, we have sometimes given undue credit to effort and attitude towards school, feeling that these were of much more social importance in the life of the pupil than successful achievement in the more formal school work.

Has the time not come when we can discard some of our ideas regarding the necessity of failure and repetition and recognize the fact that children, like trees, do not all grow at the same rate each year?

We frankly recognize that studies are of two different types. For convenience, we

have named them the cumulative and noncumulative types. Cumulative studies are so called because, in considerable measure, future progress in a specific study depends upon the accumulation of skills or knowledge previously acquired. A good example is the subject of mathematics. Under the head of cumulative subjects we list the following: English, including penmanship and spelling when required; mathematics; foreign languages.

The rate of progress through the junior high school should be largely determined by the rate at which the pupil succeeds in mastering the successive units of study in these fields. It is not a question of failure but of different rates of progress. Since these fields alone govern progress, program making is somewhat simplified, but care must be exercised in order that pupils in varying stages of development may be ac-

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commodated. It may be necessary for a pupil to take more than three years to complete the junior-high-school course, but such repetition as is required may be in small units rather than in the larger number of units which are usually covered in a whole semester.

The term noncumulative is used to designate those subjects in which emphasis is placed upon the value of the experiences and the resultant attitudes and habits rather than upon the mastery of specific skills or knowledge. Such mastery, on account of the interest and native ability of the pupil, may take place, but the primary purpose of these studies is to create attitudes of appreciation and understanding and to explore the child's interests and abilities. The important objective in this field is not to secure marks by which to regulate the progress of the pupil from grade to grade, but to provide as many varied and worth-while experiences as possible, in order that the adviser may be able to discover the direction which further education should take.

The list of noncumulative subjects is as follows: health education, social studies, occupational civics, general science, freehand drawing, drafting, music, typewriting, manual arts, rapid calculation, junior business training, auditorium, clubs.

**COMPLETE PROGRAM OF STUDIES****THIRTY PERIODS EACH WEEK***Based upon six fifty-minute periods daily**Grades 7B - 7A***Cumulative subjects****Required—constants**

English .....	4
Mathematics .....	4

**Variable**

Penmanship and Spelling .....	2
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**Noncumulative subjects****Required—constants**

Health .....	4
Social studies .....	4
Occupational civics .....	2
General science.....	2

Drawing, freehand .....	2
Music .....	2
Manual arts .....	2
Auditorium .....	1
Clubs .....	1
—	
	30

*Grade 8B***Cumulative subjects****Required—constants**

English .....	4
Mathematics .....	4

**Noncumulative subjects****Required—constants**

Health .....	4
Social studies .....	4
Typewriting .....	2
Occupational civics .....	2
General science .....	2
Drafting .....	2
Music .....	2
Manual arts .....	2
Auditorium .....	1
Clubs .....	1
—	
	30

*8A - 9B - 9A***Cumulative subjects****Required—constants**

English .....	4
Mathematics .....	4

**Elective—variables**

Foreign languages .....	4
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**Noncumulative subjects****Required—constants**

Health .....	4
Social studies .....	4
Civics .....	2
Science .....	2
Auditorium .....	1
Clubs .....	1

**Elective—variables**

Music .....	2 or 4
Drawing .....	2 or 4
Manual arts .....	2 or 4
Drafting .....	2 or 4
Penmanship .....	2 or 4
Typewriting .....	2 or 4
Dramatics .....	2 or 4
Rapid calculation .....	4
Junior business training .....	4
Latin .....	4
French .....	4
Italian .....	4

## WHICH PROCEDURE?

R. B. MARSTON

*EDITOR'S NOTE: R. B. Marston, who is superintendent of schools of Sistersville, West Virginia, raises a very pertinent question with regard to the relative merits of certain outstanding types of teaching method. His article suggests the need for investigation of the results achieved by such methods as the Dalton Plan and others.*

A. D. W.

Significance attaches to the variations in contemporary educational procedure. We have the conventional procedure, the Winnetka, the Dalton, the Morrison, and many others. Does any one of these provide a superiority of advantage for the learner in relation to his whole life?

The implications in any answer we may assume for this question are far-reaching. For example, if we assume that research will eventually show an approximate equality of effectiveness on the part of any three or four of the newer procedures, then our teacher-training institutions will be required to develop their curricula more definitely and more remotely along the lines of these particular procedures. It is reasonable to believe that candidates for teaching will be required to elect this plan or that plan as a major study in the preparation they make for their work. Specialists in the guidance of practice teachers will be assigned on the basis of their knowledge and skill of specified ways of learning and teaching. Already this implication is exercising a positive influence within the province of teacher training. It is reasonable to suspect that this influence will develop greater proportions as we make progress in measuring the effectiveness of the several procedures.

Teachers know very little about the relative effectiveness of educational procedures. The little we do know is so thinly dispersed in a large body of opinion as to possess negligible reliability. What philosophical differentiations distinguish the conventional and the Winnetka plan, the Dalton, and the Morrison? What objective data are available to support the claims of the proponents of any two given procedures?

These questions admit that much has been written about many ways of learning and teaching. But an examination of this literature reveals that in the main it is descriptive, appealing, and opinionated. From it one discovers that our educational engineers are philosophically well informed, that they are skillful in building a case, that they possess ingenious and fertile powers of imagination, that they are enthusiastic. Too infrequently are their direct and implied conclusions supported by objective data which lend themselves fairly to a comparative evaluation of the procedure which is their subject and of another procedure which is their reference point.

To propose, for instance, that the advocates of the conventional procedure and the advocates of the Dalton plan should substantiate their claims in terms of philosophy supported by objective evidence is not equivalent to taking issue with either of these two ways of learning and teaching. Rather does the proposal represent a practical starting point in attacking the difficult problem of determining which of these procedures, if either, possesses a totality of advantage for the pupil and for his social group. Again, the statement of the issue allows for the contributions of research already made in this field. On the other hand, the direct implication is that at this time we have no adequate body of objective evidence plainly showing that the conventional procedure is less effective, about equally effective, or more effective than the Dalton plan. But in stating the issue we might with the same prudence illustrate by using any other two procedures.

The limitations of our comparative knowl-

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edge of procedures is further apparent when we attempt to discover an acceptable answer to this question: "Do the newer procedures work well, if they do work well, because of the high quality of leadership and enthusiasm represented in their clientele or because of their very real utility in respect to the solution of educational problems?" Any answer we may now undertake to propose to this inquiry will fall within the realm of speculative thought. Proper respect for experimentation in the field of comparative evaluation of educational procedures allows of this observation. The instances where and when two procedures have been stacked up against one another in situations under control and measured are too few as yet to be clearly convincing.

This point of view, demanding as it does scientifically derived and scientifically manipulated data of a comparative sort, is no defense of the conventional school procedure. Neither is it an indictment of the Winnetka plan, nor of the Dalton plan, nor of any other plan.

An additional reflection which may provoke controversy suggests that the difference between the various procedures is essentially not one of educational goals. All do, or may, respect the seven cardinal principles. If any one does not, it can be explained in terms of the modification of the particular procedure in the hands of the teachers using it. But there are variations of a significant order in minor or contributory goals to the seven cardinal principles. The measure of these variations is a function of the research student in the field of comparative procedures, nor can this function be ignored because of the acknowledged difficulty standing as an obstacle to success.

The questions listed below illustrate the disquieting character of our comparative knowledge of the conventional procedure and of the Dalton plan. Separately and to-

gether they constitute a challenge to the advocates of each to support their claims, originating in the mysteries of philosophy, with objective evidence, carefully derived in a known situation and thereafter clearly set forth according to statistical methods widely accepted by scholars in the field of scientific education. It is definitely proposed that the following questions are intended in no sense of the word to represent a complete statement of the issues that may be raised in a comparative evaluation of the designated procedures.

1. Does the oral, short-range assignment of the conventional procedure develop on the part of the learner thought habits less desirable, about equally desirable, or more desirable than the thought habits developed by the learner in discharging the tasks set for him in the written unit assignment characteristic of the Dalton plan?
2. Does the size of the assignment task under each plan exercise a varying influence upon the success with which the learner meets in doing the work?
3. To what degree does each procedure cause the teacher to organize subject matter in terms of individual differences?
4. What measure of emphasis does each procedure place upon quantitative and qualitative learning?
5. To what degree does each procedure make for retention of subject matter?
6. How do these procedures compare in their demand for a more thorough and comprehensive command of subject matter on the part of the teacher?
7. What is their relative strength in terms of subject-matter mastery by the learner?
8. How successful is each in the development of resourcefulness on the part of the pupil?
9. To what degree do the restrictions of the conventional school as contrasted with the larger freedom with responsibility accorded the pupil in the Dalton school develop civic effectiveness?
10. What measure of socialization does each contribute to the learner?
11. What is the relative value of the contribution made to the learner by the central library of the conventional school and the room libraries of the Dalton school?

## COMPOSITION FOR IDEAS

HELEN RAND

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Helen Rand, who teaches English in the Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, offers several concrete suggestions for the use of teachers of English who wish to stimulate the pupils to the effective expression of vital ideas.*

A. D. W.

The idea is the thing—always. Classes in composition and grammar are conducted, or they should be, for the purpose of giving students a command of their language in order that they may express their ideas. As they express them, they develop others. It is towards ideas and for them that we are working. Therefore let us subordinate methods and theories and everything else in our textbooks and recitations while we keep the ideas uppermost. We do not talk about writing; we give students something to say and start them in the right direction. I suggest six ways of doing it.

### I. ILLUSTRATIVE SENTENCES SHOULD SAY SOMETHING

The only excuse for the existence of a sentence is that it says something. Then grammars are the negative example of what they are trying to teach if their illustrative sentences say nothing in particular. If they are merely examples of adjective clauses in the book, they will stay in the book and never get out into the lives of the children. If they do not say anything which boys and girls would like to say at a summer camp or at a party, the boys and girls will not take the lessons of the grammar with them. If grammar sentences are dead, they might as well be buried. We do not want lessons like this:

Pick out the prepositions in the following sentences:

1. The man walked with his brother towards the house.
2. The inhabitants of Alaska live in snow houses.

These sentences are dull because we do not know the man, his brother, or the house, and we do not care a thing about

them. Why should we? We can see something more interesting in the street any minute ourselves; therefore why look in a grammar? The second sentence does not tell us anything we did not know, and there is no apparent reason why we should be reminded of it now. There is no relation between the first and second sentence. Only insane people go from one thing to another like that. Certainly there is nothing in those two sentences to challenge live and intelligent boys and girls. They had much better follow their own interests. Let us change the lesson to this:

Underline the twenty prepositions in these sentences.

1. The King of Sigham walked with Count de Change to the auction.
2. The scouts had already come from their tents and were gathered around Tin Tongue.

Sentences that say something boys and girls would like to say, and carry an idea through at least a few consecutive sentences, are not only sensible and practical teaching, but they are a good classroom device for holding attention. The boys that are twisting strings in their pockets or their minds on foreign playgrounds have a little more in the lesson to speculate about while the others are reciting.

### 2. LET US BE CONCRETE

The great aim of composition is to talk, write, and think concretely. The textbooks and teachers must be concrete. In the first place, the illustrative sentences are concrete. Instead of the man and his brother we talk about Count de Change and Tin Tongue, the auctioneer. We do not sing songs: The comb band plays "The Old Gray Hearse" for the King of Sigham. We give

## COMPOSITION FOR IDEAS

the boys and girls in the sentences real names like Edward, Willis, and Eleanor. We have the names of real places like Ames, Iowa, and Atlanta, Georgia. If the people and places seem real, perhaps the whole lesson will be more real.

The illustrative sentences that the students make up might just as well be as concrete as we can encourage them to be. When a student gives a dull sentence, we say, "That sentence has three prepositions in it, but it would bore any one." We can do a good deal to make the sentences interesting by suggesting the subject matter. Instead of saying to a class, "Give me a sentence with the present tense of *lie* in it," say, "We will tell a story about two men and a dog that were lost in the mountains. In every sentence we will use one of these forms of the verb *lie* which I have written on the board, lie, lies, lying, lay, lain. Edward, you may begin the story."

We might assign a written lesson like this: "Tell the story of a contest in which you use these fifteen adverbs. Have every one modify a verb. Tell a story about a storm in which you use these five adverbs. Have every one modify an adjective. Tell a story about school in which you use these five adverbs. Have every one modify another adverb."

Assignments for written compositions should be concrete. We do not simply say: "Write a theme for tomorrow about some pet you have had," and then go on to the lesson for the day. Even a grown professional writer could not turn out a good article in a day if he had only a vague assignment. We must not ask the children to do the impossible. A professional writer thinks about his subject and talks about it if he can find a listener. We can let a class think over the subject together and find suggestive listeners in each other. We may begin by asking if dogs can think. One boy says they can, and tells a story about his

own dog to prove it. Another boy says they cannot reason things out, and he tells a story about his neighbor's dog. Others in the class are full of stories about dogs they have known. Their compositions are already formed or forming in their minds. Now is the time for the assignment: "For tomorrow write a story which will prove that a dog can think or that he cannot think."

## 3. PUT THEORY INTO PRACTICE

The theory of composition is valuable to only a few people. Those doing research and specializing teachers work with it, but even they are preparing it for use. It is no good of itself. It must not be fed raw to the children.

The principles of unity, coherence, and emphasis are fundamental, and what Aristotle said about unity helps us to criticize all manner of books. It is splendid stuff in graduate courses, but I do not think younger children are able to profit by theory as theory. Even in college undergraduate courses, though a study of unity, coherence, and emphasis enables students to criticize what has been written, I do not think it is a constructive way of teaching them to write. I have been surprised year after year how little effect the study of the theory has upon college freshmen, and I have been equally surprised how keen ninth-grade children are to understand the principles in practice. They say when their classmates read their compositions: "That hasn't anything to do with the subject." "I don't see the connection there." "Why don't you put the best point last?"

Young students need guidance so that their writing will have unity, coherence, and emphasis. They may acquire the habit without even hearing of the three technical words. When the teacher asks her students to write a story to prove that a dog can or cannot think, she had eliminated by the class discussion and by the wording of the as-

signment anything that would destroy unity. She had worked the idea of the intelligence of animals down till it was one concrete question. That is working for unity, coherence, and emphasis without talking about it.

Unity might be taught not by quoting Aristotle but by applying his theory. There could be a lesson on deciding what is the one most important thing to tell about if you were going to explain any of the following: How to put out a camp fire, how to be a good grocery-store clerk, how to have a good time at a party.

Coherence and emphasis might be taught by studying and writing advertisements. Let each student bring an advertisement from a magazine to class and give a talk on how the one who wrote that advertisement emphasized just one thing and how he subordinated the ideas of lesser importance and made them relate to the main idea.

If we have a theory that observation is an underlying principle of writing, we do not write a chapter or deliver a lecture with four points on why the student should observe. We do not even assign vague descriptive theme subjects like "Trees by Moonlight." Boys may look at the trees, but it is not natural for them to talk about them. Anyway, observation is not bound up with description alone; it is ten times bigger. Writing description is not the sole aim of observing. We can observe action as well as moonlight, and a fourteen-year-old boy would much rather do so.

We do not talk about observation: we teach it. How? In various ways. For one day we might work with the students' supply of general facts by letting them discover what is wrong in a list of statements. Writing is a matter of having something to write about, of knowing things, much more than it is a question of grammatical knowledge. Grammatical knowledge is important because it serves the greater knowledge. We say, "What is wrong with these facts?"

1. I saw the cutest little Airedale puppy five days old with the sweetest big brown eyes you ever saw.

2. There was one clap of thunder followed by one streak of lightning which struck the top of our elm tree. Then it hopped from tree top to tree top all down the block.

Observing straight thinking while listening or reading is important. Arguments need not be confined to a chapter on debating. Most of us do not look forward to being in formal debates, but we do argue with ourselves and others every day. Lessons in elementary logic are lessons in observation.

One way of observing that has point, and therefore interest, is to observe differences. That brings two ideas together so that the students need to know them accurately and select what is pertinent to the comparison. There might be a class discussion like this. What is the difference between the following: poison ivy and woodbine, a malaria mosquito and an ordinary one, a stalactite and a stalagmite, bay berry and barberry, a hoot owl and a screech owl, dairy and beef type of cattle, a sixpence and a dime, investment and speculation, thrift and stinginess. After the class has thought and talked about the differences, the assignment for the next day is practical dictionary work with a purpose and written definitions or explanations of differences. That gives training in concrete observation and accurate expression.

Another theory which needs to be put into practice concerns words. We do not want to have children recite on the four ways of increasing the vocabulary, nor do we want too much entomology. Students need to be able to use words for business and pleasure. Therefore, let us teach them as they are used. Instead of studying big separate words that no one would want to say in ordinary conversation, let us study apt combinations of simple words. Let us fit words together and use them in phrases.

## COMPOSITION FOR IDEAS

### 4. LET THE IDEAS, NOT THE TEACHER'S OUT-LINE, STAND OUT

Students need not be kept conscious that they are being put through drills, exercises, and that the theories of educators are being imposed upon them. We are not the hostesses that talk all the time about our recipes. We let the finished dishes stand upon the table pleasantly garnished. It is too bad if students do not know what they are studying in composition, if their lessons day after day are just from page — to page —. They might be discussing in class things so interesting that they are bursting to write about the habits of animals, hunting hobbies, the best jobs, or heroes. They may be studying about adjective phrases or complex sentences in order to write up an interview about the most popular man in the world to-day.

In the make-up of our textbooks, let us not have the prominent lettering be Lesson XIV, or Drill XXVIII A-3, or Problem XIX. If we are studying complex sentences, let Complex Sentences be the heading. If we are talking and writing about hobbies, let us have a chapter, like any other real book, and call it Hunting Hobbies.

### 5. MAKE DRILLS SIMILAR TO OTHER LIFE TASKS

Students do not mind work. Indeed, they are restless for more than we can give them. But they do not want to work just for the sake of being busy unless it is their own play. They have too much sense. I have noticed that they are quite ready to do mechanical drills if they see exactly what they have to do and why they have to do it. Direction should be clear and simple. The exercises should teach; they should not confuse. There should not be drills on *lie* and *lay*, *rise* and *raise*, *sit* and *set* that mix up students. The difficult parts of each verb should be taken separately and dealt with plainly.

It helps to give point to an exercise if the directions explain exactly how much is to be done. "Put the correct forms of the verb *lie* in these twenty-five blanks" is very much better than the directions would be if the "twenty-five" were not there. Tourists take much more interest in climbing to a lookout station if the guide tells them there are 134 steps. We are all so much readier to begin work if we see the end.

Instead of proof reading, or marking the mistakes which others have made, the students can profitably work with sentences as they would if they were writing. They can learn various ways of gaining adequate brevity by crossing out words and combining them. They can learn to write more vividly and punctuate more accurately by changing indirect discourse into direct discourse.

### 6. LET STUDENTS TELL THE TEACHER SOMETHING SHE DOES NOT KNOW

One day in the midst of my droning three o'clock class some one read that Hermes scudded over the ocean swift as the wind. I said, "How fast does the wind go? I don't know. How fast does an airplane go? I don't know." That whole class rose up quick as Hermes himself. It is so dull and stupid to be telling teachers all day long what they have known for years. It is not as interesting for the teachers either as it would be if they were learning with the boys and girls.

The opinions of even young children are often valuable and stimulating. At least their ideas ought to be important to them. Of course much that is to be learned in school is not a matter of opinion, and it is demoralizing to let students think that everything is merely a matter of opinion, yet when there are opportunities for discussion, students may as well be given the benefit. There is such a natural human pleasure in telling people all we know and think.

Suppose the students are to practice writing conversations. Before the definite as-

signment is made the class is thinking about talking with people. They might, to help every one formulate his own ideas, begin with a question something like this:

Which of these statements do you think is best?  
A person is not a good talker unless he

1. talks all the time
2. reads newspapers and magazines
3. reads good books
4. travels abroad or in this country
5. knows how to listen
6. likes people
7. knows when to talk and when to keep still

## A STROLL IN SCIENCE

WALTER A. PREISCHE

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Walter Preische is in the department of physical science in the Hebrew Technical Institute of New York City. His description of what educational values may develop from trips undertaken by the students under the guidance of an instructor seems to the editor to offer useful suggestions to teachers of science and all other subjects who may wish to take their students on tours of observation.*

A. D. W.

The possibilities and results that lie hidden in and that can be derived from an acquaintance with the industrial phase of our environment and its relationship to the curriculum of the school are not fully realized by the greater percentage of school administrators and teachers. This is a deplorable condition for no student in a technical school or in a high school can fully appreciate the educational values of school work without seeing its more practical applications in nature and in industry. It is the purpose, therefore, of the writer to set forth some experiences that may prove useful to others who desire to broaden the views of students as well as to produce a better student-teacher relationship.

In planning trips which last over a period of approximately two weeks, the leader should have a definite itinerary. This should be elastic enough to permit any adjustment for weather conditions or other uncontrollable circumstance that may occur en route. It is virtually imperative for the leader to make the trip before taking students, so that he may acquaint himself with the territory to be covered and may arrange for stopovers. Above all, the leader must be sympathetic with youth and its inexhaustible

supply of energy which may at times seem unwise directed into inoffensive pranks. Also, cognizance must be taken of that insatiable curiosity which ultimately leads to serious consideration of school work and choice of vocation. On such trips as these it is quite essential that the leader have a fair knowledge of the principles of first aid and nutrition. Both of these are of value in maintaining the health of the students and, therefore, making the trip a success. A factor that cannot be too greatly emphasized is that the leader should thoroughly understand boys' problems and individual differences. Boys are materially different on such trips from what they are in the classroom—more natural. One should also take part in the sports and stunts of the boys and have a versatility of knowledge in various fields. If the leader judiciously follows these instructions thus becoming a "regular fellow," the success of the trip will be assured and be of incalculable value to all participating.

The industries visited on trips which the writer conducted during the past summer included architectural terra cotta, sanitary ware potteries, rubber, automobile trucks, sewer pipes (iron), pumps, silk, dyeing, and

*A STROLL IN SCIENCE*

aeroplane engines. All of the industries visited supplied guides who readily explained each process and answered all questions which were asked by the students. A more hearty coöperation could not be desired. All scientific and mechanical principles studied in the classroom were pointed out and discussed.

In the outline which follows it will be seen how these different industries were visited, as well as, how the time was spent en route. Each group consisted of ten boys ranging in age from 14 to 18 years.

*First Day*

Visit terra-cotta plant

Train 20 miles

Bus 34 miles

Hike 8 miles

*Second Day*

Visit sanitary ware potteries

Visit nature museum

Visit municipal buildings

Swim in Y pool

Hike 10 miles

*Third Day*

Visit rubber mill

Operate canal locks and boats

Swim in river and boating

Bus 15 miles

Hike 12 miles

*Fourth Day*

Bus 12 miles

Trolley 13 miles

Hike 18 miles

Nature Study on Hike

*Fifth Day*

Visit truck works

Study bridge and viaduct

Visit university

Hike 12 miles

*Sixth Day*

Hike 16 miles

Bus 22 miles

Swim in river

Lecture by State police

*Seventh Day*

Hike 13 miles

Geology and nature study

Swim in river

Quoits tournaments

Stunts

*Eighth Day*

Visit sewer-pipe plant

Trolley 13 miles

Hike 9 miles

Bus 22 miles

*Ninth Day*

Visit pump-manufacturing plant

Trolley 13 miles

Hike 14 miles

Lift on truck 15 miles

*Tenth Day*

Hike 9 miles

Lift on truck 11 miles

Swim in lake and boating

*Eleventh Day*

Hike 14 miles

Lift 15 miles

Swim in Y pool

*Twelfth Day*

Visit silk mill

Visit dye works

Visit aero-engine plant

Hike 12 miles

Bus 19 miles

A summary of the distances covered by various means appears as follows:

*Miles*

Train .....	20
Trolley .....	39
Lifts .....	41
Bus .....	124
Hike .....	147

Total ..... 371

Sleeping quarters were obtained at inexpensive hotels whenever possible. These had to have well-ventilated and sanitary rooms. Two boys usually occupied a room which prevented crowding and gave better conditions for sleep. A break in the regular routine was experienced one night by sleeping in a barn partly filled with new clean straw. Also two nights were spent in a respectable roadside ice-cream parlor. The novelty of these conditions added greatly to the unusual for city-bred boys.

**JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE**

Extreme care was taken in the matter of choosing places for meals. The kitchen as well as the dining room and personnel were inspected so that there would be the least possible danger from unsanitary conditions or poor food. The food was plain but of the best quality and chosen for its value. There was no pie, cake, or rich food, as these generally worked contrary to the best physical stamina essential on such extended tours.

A typical menu consisted of :

<i>Breakfast</i>
Fruit
Cereal
Scrambled eggs
Toast
Milk or coffee

  

<i>Lunch</i>
Cheese sandwich
Milk or coffee

  

<i>Dinner</i>
Soup
Roast beef or fresh ham
Mashed potato
Two vegetables
Pudding or ice cream
Milk, tea, or coffee

From the outline given above one might think that such trips as described were expensive. This would be erroneous as the expense involved will more than repay in dividends in the years ahead through the boys who were fortunate enough to have had such a broadening experience. The cost per boy for the trip averages approximately:

Food .....	\$17.70
Sleep .....	9.25
Transportation .....	5.25
Miscellaneous .....	.30
 Total .....	 \$32.50

The health of each boy was closely guarded. All ills were reported to the leader, who immediately administered or supervised first aid from the kits distributed among the boys. Aside from a few blisters and muscle aches there are few ailments which cannot

be handled if the boy is physically fit when he starts. Precaution must be taken with regard to drinking water so that the boy will gradually accustom himself to the change and that he does not drink too much when warm. Frequent examination of the feet is important for the welfare and spirit of the group. Each night the boys were required to change from hiking clothes to street clothes. This is rather important.

Each boy was provided with a knapsack in which he carried the necessities mentioned below. Instruction sheets such as those which follow were given to each boy when the parents' consent permitting him to go on the trip was received.

**INSTRUCTION SHEET***Articles to be taken by each individual in knapsacks*

- 2 suits lightweight underwear
- 3 pairs stockings
- 4 handkerchiefs
- 2 outside shirts with collars
- 1 pair lightweight trousers
- 1 necktie
- 2 small hand towels
- lightweight bathing suit
- cake soap
- pocket comb
- toothbrush
- small box talcum
- aluminum drinking cup

*Articles to be taken for the group*

- whisk broom
- blacking brush
- blacking
- small flashlight
- camera
- tennis ball
- bird book
- tree book
- flower book
- first-aid equipment
- needle and thread

*Cautions and Instructions*

- Shoes—broad toes, thick soles, strong, not new.
- Extra pair of shoes done up at home ready to be mailed upon request.
- Wear everyday clothes.
- Matches must not be carried.

**A STROLL IN SCIENCE**

There must be no profane or obscene language. Write to parents or guardian frequently. Send a report to the principal daily, taking turns in writing. Take but a small sum of money, 3 or 4 dollars. Be temperate until accustomed to different drinking water. Be temperate in eating, especially green fruit. Be careful when rowing; do not stand when changing positions in a rowboat. Be careful of the property of others. Do not shout in a hotel, or act in a way objectionable to others. Observe table etiquette. Be courteous to all. Act the part of a gentleman at all times: the Institute's reputation is in your hands. Be a member of the group, not of a clique. Keep a pocket diary of important matters, places visited, and things seen. Write a full report of the trip before November first for the Institute.

During the early stages of the trip the boys walked 30 minutes and rested ten. This was gradually increased to walking 45 and resting 15 minutes. Should the humidity or heat be intense, the leader must carefully observe the reactions of the boys and act

accordingly by walking for shorter periods of time. It is very essential that the boys remove their knapsacks and thoroughly relax. Thus the boy does not feel taxed and lose interest in the trip but rather perspires freely and is happy.

The question most frequently asked concerning educational trips is "Of what value are they?" The writer has made the following conclusions in answer to this question:

1. Demonstrates a true relationship between school work and out-of-school work
2. Builds up a real comradeship between student and teacher
3. Shows the boy the interdependence of all people for the advancement of each
4. Gives an impressive realism to work
5. Intensifies interest in school work
6. Arouses an appreciation of the beautiful and the useful
7. Causes a deeper thought and appreciation of one's opportunities
8. Exerts a pressure upon the boy to make him put forth a greater effort to make the most of himself mentally and socially.

## **THE CLEARING HOUSE**

**A Journal for Progressive Junior- and Senior-High-School People**

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## CHARACTER EDUCATION IN THE MATHEMATICS CLASSROOM

M. R. McGREAL

*EDITOR'S NOTE: This short paper was prepared recently in connection with an assignment in the course in the content and teaching of junior-high mathematics in the School of Education of New York University. Mr. McGreal is teacher of mathematics in the Newark (N.J.) West Side High School.*

J. A. D.

The general problem of character education cannot be isolated. It is interrelated with every teaching problem in every classroom. Whether the teacher is conscious of it or not she is building character. The laws of learning are as applicable to character education as to any other education based on behavior patterns. To make the process of character education a consciously controlled process it is necessary to aim for the development of certain traits. The traits must be based on conduct and habits. The habits must not be specific or localized in a special environment. They should be growths rather than tentative impositions. Moral character is tied up especially with the reactions of the individual to the social group. The ordinary courtesies and manners should be observed without exception and should be rationalized as much as possible.

The content material of mathematics is such that through self-testing and checking it is possible for the pupil to develop self-reliance and also to take responsibility for results. Self-reliance and responsibility are traits desired in character education.

There is an unusual opportunity to set up standards of neatness, thoroughness, in-

dustry, accuracy, orderliness, and dependability. If the standards are expected without exception and if the student is led to see their desirability in general, then they will become ingrained so as to make their transfer to environments outside of the classroom more probable. The habit of concentration, the desire to grow mentally, and the necessity of carrying a problem through to completion are other foundations upon which a desirable character may be built. The avoidance of snap judgments and the tendency to suspend judgment until the problem is checked are other aids not to be neglected.

The informational side of arithmetic dealing with taxes, budgets, and investment of savings has a contribution to make towards frugality.

Every teacher in the school should cooperate in seeing that an opportunity to display the right attitude is not neglected. The work assigned should be within the student's ability so that temptations are not put in his way. Honesty in everything should be insisted on. Character is being formed in our mathematics classroom—let it be of the right kind.

**SPECIALISTS'**  
EDUCATIONAL BUREAU

TEACHERS WANTED — College Graduates only, except in vocational or special fields. All subjects except elementary. Fill the better places only. All States. Get details.

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## FROM OUR READERS

In the September CLEARING HOUSE we published an article by John Carr Duff on "Should Traffic Cops Teach Latin?" You will remember that Mr. Duff maintained that "safety patrols" cannot be justified. We asked for comments from our readers. Some like the idea, others do not. Following are some of the letters we received.

OAKLAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

November 19, 1931

Editor, CLEARING HOUSE

Dear Sir:

Allow me to refer to the article in the September number of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE entitled "Should Traffic Cops Teach Latin?" by John Carr Duff. At the head of that article you ask, "What is your opinion?" May I give you a few data from the experience of Oakland with reference to this work?

I have the following record from the office of the county coroner concerning children killed in Oakland between the hours of 8.00 a.m. and 4.30 p.m. ages 5 to 17 inclusive. For the five years preceding the establishment of the Junior Traffic Reserve, 27 children were killed. Since its establishment in February 1928, not a single child has been killed. Of course, we cannot expect this 100 per cent efficiency to last always, but we consider this record an unanswerable argument in favor of our present organization.

We have approximately 1,600 boys in our traffic reserve guarding crossings in the neighborhood of 48 schools, and approximately 50,000 children come under the control of this reserve. Our elementary schools with sixth-grade boys in charge are doing the same sort of work effectively as are our senior-high-school boys. They have their uniforms for wet and for dry weather. They are specially trained by the police department for the work they have to do.

I may say that the indiscriminate practices portrayed by Mr. Duff do not prevail with us. We endeavor to see the practice uniform. No children stand in the streets to signal motorists. All signals are from the curb or else from protected safety stations. The courts enforce the authority of these young officials.

Perhaps traffic cops should not teach Latin, but since the city will not and, indeed, cannot add 1,600 traffic cops to its force, perhaps what we have done about it is the most reasonable thing

to do. Incidentally, these boys are obtaining as fine a lesson in bearing the responsibility of good citizenship as they might get in studying Latin.

Very truly yours,  
LEWIS B. AVERY  
*Director of Auxiliary Agencies*  
*Oakland Public Schools*

THE UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH  
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION  
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

October 27, 1931

MY DEAR MR. DUFF:

I have been much interested in reading your article "Should Traffic Cops Teach Latin" in the September number of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE. I am glad to see some one has the nerve to question the use of street-student traffic cops, and I am glad also that some one with your experience and ability has done this job. I have always been pessimistic about this type of student activity, and I agree with you and your article in just about one hundred per cent.

Very cordially yours,  
H. C. McKOWN  
*Professor of Secondary Education*

PRINCETON PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
PRINCETON, NEW JERSEY

October 22, 1931

MY DEAR MR. DUFF:

After reading your article in the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE, I can't resist writing you and sending greetings—in memory of International House days—and telling you that I don't agree with you at all on student patrols!!! In New Jersey we think they are grand institutions! But your article was most interesting and sounded so like you. Wish we could have an old-time pow-wow on the subject.

Best wishes,

Sincerely,  
JEANNE M. WRIGHT, Dean  
*Princeton High School*

And then we have from the Uniontown Morning Herald of December 8, 1931:

An inventory showing all school property, including books, furniture, and equipment was authorized while a resolution was passed dispensing with the schoolboy safety patrols to the extent that the patrols will stop directing traffic. This resolution was adopted to comply with an act of assembly, it was stated.

January, 1932

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## JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

"Cavaling at Complacency" in the October CLEARING HOUSE brought forth interesting comment.

BATAVIA, NEW YORK

*Editor, CLEARING HOUSE:*

I wish to express my deep appreciation of the article by Dr. Briggs which has just appeared in the October number of your magazine. To my mind it is one of the most worth-while and timely articles that I have ever seen published in an educational magazine.

Have you had any reprints of this article? I am sure, if you could do this, there are a great many school men who would be glad to buy them to supply their faculties. Should you decide to do this, please put me down for seventy-five copies.

H. D. WEBER  
Principal

And also came the following letter, expressing much the same sentiment:

NEW YORK, N.Y.

*MY DEAR PROFESSOR BRIGGS:*

Thank you for your courteous attention to my request.

The publishers of the CLEARING HOUSE were good enough to send me two magazines from the University so that I shall be able to quote correctly from your most splendid article.

If you ever have excerpts from the article mimeographed, I should be deeply appreciative of the opportunity of distributing them throughout our State.

I am,

Very truly yours,  
IDABEL M. PORTER  
Chairman, Adult Literacy

New York State Federation of Women's Clubs  
15 West 122d Street, New York, N.Y.

If there is sufficient demand we shall be pleased to run off additional reprints.

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Here is what some of our readers thought of "The Teacher in the High School of the Future" by P. W. L. Cox in the November number:

TEACHERS COLLEGE  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY  
December 9, 1931

*DEAR DR. COX:*

Your article in THE JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH

SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE on "The Teacher in the High School of the Future" is one of the best things written on secondary education in America. Every high-school principal and teacher ought to read this. I wish somehow it could be brought to them.

CLYDE R. MILLER  
*Director, Bureau of Educational Service*

TOPEKA, KANSAS

December 7, 1931

*MY DEAR PROFESSOR COX:*

Your delightful article in the November JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE is a gem among the articles that make that number an extraordinary one.

Your style is so vigorous and readable that it becomes an exception to the work of educators.

C. R. VAN NICE  
*Editor, School Activities Publishing Company*  
1212 West 13th Street  
Topeka, Kansas

WASHINGTON, D.C.

December 11, 1931

*MY DEAR DR. COX:*

Have just enjoyed reading your article on "The Teacher in the High School of the Future," in JUNIOR-SENIOR CLEARING HOUSE for November. Have also just read Snedden's book *American Secondary Schools in 1930*. Yours is clear and concise, but both are stimulating.

H. E. WARNER  
*Principal, L. G. Hine Junior High School*

---

Here is a gentle pat on the back:

HARRISBURG, PA.  
*Editor, CLEARING HOUSE:*  
I like the CLEARING HOUSE. It gets better all the time.

C. O. WILLIAMS  
*The Pennsylvania State College  
Teacher-Training Extension*

Write us about any of our articles, our editorial policies, our journal, or your school. Even if you do not like us, we shall be pleased to pass the word along.

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## OTHERS SAY

Edited by FLOYD E. HARSHMAN

*The National Vocational Guidance Association Convention.*—The National Vocational Guidance Association will hold its annual convention February 18-20, 1932, at Washington. The program is to be one stressing vocational guidance in a changing world. The opening meeting will be devoted to a consideration of three problems: first, "Education, Whither Bound," second, "The Machine Age and Unemployment," and third, "The Evolution of the Social Order." These topics are expected to bring forth the background material for the specific topics to be presented later in the meeting.

The specific topics for group discussion are to be:

1. Adult Guidance
  2. Vocational Guidance in the Continuation School
  3. Vocational Guidance in the Vocational School
  4. Who Should Go to College?
  5. Guidance Through the Social Agencies
  6. Guidance Through Service Clubs
  7. Vocational Guidance for the Handicapped
  8. Guidance Through Labor Organizations
- and other topics of like nature. In addition to these group topics, there will be organized several open round-table discussion groups. The program promises to be of more than ordinary merit in that there will be a personal touch which is often missing in great national conventions.<sup>3</sup>

*The International Recreation Congress.*—The first International Recreation Congress will be held in Los Angeles July 23-29, 1932, and will afford those interested in the planning of recreation programs an opportunity to find out what is being done the world over in this interesting work.

Some of the Western cities of the United States are doing outstanding work in recreation, and those who attend the convention will be permitted to see excellent programs in operation. Immediately following the convention, the Olympic games, which are to be held in Los Angeles, will afford those present an opportunity that may not fall to their lot in America again during this century. The program has not as yet been definitely stated, but it is certain that during the six days, delegates to the Congress will be shown summer camps for Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, swimming centers of Los Angeles and vicinity, park and playground recreation, and the varied recreational

possibilities of the Western mountain country.<sup>4</sup>

*Student-Body Presidents Organize.*—At the Los Angeles convention of the National Education Association, presidents of student bodies in secondary schools organized for the first time and have planned to meet at the same time and place as the National Education Association in the future.

The organization had its origin in the Sapulpa High School in Oklahoma, and presidents of student bodies of every secondary school are eligible for membership. The plan is to have both a past president and a present president represent each school. At the present time, Warren E. Schuell of Sapulpa High School, Sapulpa, Oklahoma, is the president of the organization. The purposes of the organization are as follows:

"First, establishing a medium for exchanging ideas relative to student activities of both extra and regular curriculum; second, the organizing of high schools into a closer relationship for the purpose of becoming acquainted with the activities and progress of other schools; third, acquainting the leading educators with the activities of youth and securing any data for the students that the administration might desire; fourth, moulding closer relationship between students and the administration; fifth, working towards international good will by international correspondence and the exchanging of information and ideas."<sup>5</sup>

*What is the best Taught Subject in the Secondary Schools of the United States?*—Dr. Hamilton Holt, president of Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida, addressed an assembly of deans of women of New Jersey secondary schools at the Newark Normal School, and in the course of his address he referred to present-day teaching as somewhat lacking in effectiveness. He attributed this ineffectiveness to the fact that the present-day recitation system in schools makes the teacher a detective rather than a real teacher. He further stated that the lecture system in use in so many schools is one in which the teacher hands out information in spoonfuls, expecting them to be gulped down without thorough mastication. He stated still further that the examinations given are very difficult and that many students, after their school courses, must get tutors to help them pass the examinations which are given.

<sup>3</sup> *Recreation*, November 1931.

<sup>4</sup> *The Journal of the National Education Association*, December 1931.

Dr. Holt explained his theory of education as that whereby the teacher may not hope to change the quality of the pupil's mind but may encourage the pupils to work and inspire them to seek more knowledge.

The speaker has an idea that an eight-hour day composed of six class hours and a two-hour period for participation in wholesome physical activities is the ideal school day.

Dr. Holt believes that better education will be carried on when it is put upon the conference plan, where work is not required. He believes that pupils will work harder and to better purpose than in present-day recitation plans. This type of education would become one based upon the desire to learn a particular thing. His belief being that only those who wish to learn or who can be inspired to learn, as is the case in the freer type of sport, leads him to make the statement that "football is the only subject well taught in American schools and colleges." In this one course, the participants desire to know so that they may be able to do the work required on any good football team, and so that they may in the end become good football players. Following the same reasoning, any normal person might become a good student of any subject after he could be inspired with desire which would cause him to work unceasingly for success.

*The Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee, December 7, 1931.*—"Since the National Child Labor Committee began its work, twenty-seven years ago," stated Courtenay Dinnidie, general secretary of the Committee, in making public the Annual Report of the organization, "there has been a reduction of at least one million in the number of children under 16 years of age currently employed in the United States.

"Of children and young people under 18 years

of age now at work or looking for work in competition with adults, it is safe to say that a million more ought to be in school. The major task ahead of the National Child Labor Committee is to keep these children in school and out of competition for employment until their training is completed."

The report of the Committee points out that the employment of boys under 14, and except in rare instances under 16 years of age, has been eliminated in certain occupations cruelly unfit for children; for instance, in the coal breakers where the air is thick with coal dust, in the fierce heat of the glass-works "glory hole," and in southern cotton mills. On the other hand, there is still a large amount of industrial work under conditions that are strainful and injurious, involving thousands of children approximately two years older than was the case a generation ago. There remain also the scattered reaches of child labor, more difficult to control, but affecting many thousands of children, some extremely young.

The report of the National Child Labor Committee points out that less and less is modern industry offering jobs that have educational value or opportunities for advancement of untrained, poorly educated children. It stresses the illogicality, at a time when production so far outruns consumption, and when youths are increasingly unwanted in industry, of denying to boys and girls the training they need for worth-while jobs. The Committee, therefore, takes the stand that children under 16 years of age should be in school and that school facilities should be expanded to provide for the constructive training of 16- and 17-year-old minors who are not destined to follow the straight-line path through high school up to or through the college door, and especially for those who are motor minded.

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Mathematics for Junior High School Teachers*, by W. L. SCHAAF. Richmond: B. F. Johnson Publishing Company, 1931, iii + 439 pages, \$2.00.

This book contains twelve chapters of well-written matter. Each chapter is treated from four points of view: (1) content, (2) pertinent backgrounds, (3) educational values, and (4) teaching procedures. This is the first effort to give to junior-high-school mathematics teachers a body of professionalized matter comparable with that prepared by Overman, by E. H. Taylor, and by

Roantree and Taylor for teachers of mathematics in the elementary school. On the whole, the task is well done if consideration is given to the fact that the book is a pioneer in its field.

The reviewer thinks that this book will find a prominent place in teacher-training classes both for the parts which are well done and for those phases which are poorly or inadequately treated.

Examples of the latter are: (1) Omission of provision for training prospective teachers of junior-high mathematics to meet the needs of the numerous seventh-grade children inadequately prepared in the fundamental processes with integers

## BOOK REVIEWS

and fractions. (2) The author is either careless or inconsistent in his computation technique. On page 192 the equation is true. On page 189 the equation is false. On page 185 is found the expression "65% of the Selling Price = \$135, therefore  $\$135 \div \$65 = \$205.69$ ." How a logically-minded person can jump from 65 per cent to \$.65 in the same sentence is not clear. (3) The treatment of problem solving is inadequate and disappointing to all teachers who are seeking help in the most difficult phase of junior-high mathematics. (4) The chapter on the function concept is a timely one but it is pitched on the level of the student of college mathematics, and therefore much too complicated for the type of teacher for whom it should be written. A full, simplified, and understandable treatment of the function concept is very desirable. Such a chapter should appear early in the book and after that frequent use should be made of it. Teachers of secondary mathematics must not neglect this very valuable and fundamental notion if mathematics is to be understood as well as done.

The treatment of numerical trigonometry can be simplified and improved by omitting logarithmic solutions and solutions of infinite series, and by limiting the field to the three trigonometric functions (sine, cosine, and tangent), and by developing these functions from the right triangle through careful measurement and computation. The solution of the right triangle by use of the natural function certainly should precede logarithms if trigonometric functions are to have meaning to ninth-grade children.

In the judgment of the reviewer some of the strong features of this book are (1) the author's very sensible position in the matter of demonstrative geometry in a junior-high mathematics course. As the mathematical abilities of ninth grade children come to be better understood the less emphasis will be placed on demonstrative geometry. (2) The treatment of intuitive geometry is very complete and stimulating in the direction of providing much mathematics of a laboratory character. (3) The chapter on direct measurement is exceedingly useful and well presented. (4) The informational value of junior-high mathematics is well shown in the chapters on money and banking, investments, and insurance.

It seems to the writer that all teachers, prospective and experienced, irrespective of how good or how poor their professional training, can afford to study critically Schaaf's *Mathematics for Junior High School Teachers*.

J. A. D.

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*The Way Out of Educational Confusion*, by JOHN DEWEY. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1931, 41 pages, \$1.00.

In the Inglis lecture for 1931, Dr. Dewey discusses the confusion in education due to aimlessness and to the attempt in schools and colleges "to follow tradition and yet introduce radically new materials and interests into it—the attempt to superimpose the old on the new." We need rather to "attempt to make a new wine of culture and to provide new containers."

Dewey sees little hope of reducing the educational confusion in the efforts of schools of education to refine existing practices, "striving to bring them under the protective shield of 'scientific method'! That course is more likely to increase confusion."

The practical turn which American education is taking results in fundamental conflicts between the practical aim and the cultural ideal. But a "culture" which is divorced from the main directions and interests of modern life can survive only as a feeble, attenuated luxury for the few.

There is, says Dewey, "a genuine possibility of development of culture, of humane, liberal, outlook in intimate connection with the practical activities of life—only in that connection can culture be truly vital for the many." He urges therefore that we replace our school subjects, set forth as they are in books and syllabi, with learning experiences wherein study includes applications to life problems rather than to examination passing and credit getting.

American education stands to gain confidence in its emerging reorientation from just such restatements of the challenging thesis with which Dewey's name is associated. Hence, all progressives must be grateful to him and to the Inglis lectureship sponsors for this book.

P. W. L. C.

*Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, by ROBERT D. COLE. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1931, vii + 598 + xxiii pages, \$3.00.

Professor Cole's book is most opportune because it sums up for the administrator, the teacher in service, and the teacher in training the best that has been written in the field and "attempts so to correlate this material that modern-language instruction in French, German, and Spanish may be improved," to use the author's own words. The methodologists will be delighted to find treated with adequate notes, references, and suggested

## BOOK REVIEWS

topics for discussion and study, such problems as: development and present status of modern-language teaching in the U.S.A.; objectives of modern-language instruction; modern-language methodology; the new type of course suggested by the modern-language study; reading; the teaching of vocabulary and idiom; life and literature of foreign countries; realia; grammar; pronunciation and oral work; foreign languages in the junior high schools; measurements of instruction; who should study foreign languages; supervision of modern-language instruction; teacher training. The appendices contain a very substantial bibliography of books and articles on the various phases of the teaching of modern foreign languages. It will readily be seen that no one connected even remotely with the subject can afford to be without this valuable compendium.

This work is also a digest of the report of the Committee on Investigation of the Modern Foreign Study (financed by the Carnegie Corporation and sponsored by the American Council on Education), entitled *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, by Professor Coleman of the University of Chicago, who frankly states that of the four immediate aims of modern-language instruction—the progressive development of the power to read, understand, speak, and write the foreign language—the first is the most realizable in a two-year high-school course. While the profession is willing to grant this point, it hesitates to believe that the power of reading can be acquired by a minimum of intensive reading and a maximum of extensive reading, nor does it favor the drastic reduction of oral and aural work, and the usual amount of grammar. In short, the majority will accept the *reading aim* but not the *reading method*.

Your reviewer cannot but feel that Professor Cole, while trying to be impartial in this discussion, has often favored Professor Coleman's recommendations, although they are opposed by the rank and file as well as by most of the leaders of our profession. Modern-language teachers will be disappointed to see such a distinguished colleague accept the two-year challenge when we all know by experience and from experiments conducted by psychologists and other educationists that three years are required by the average student to reach the level of final maturity in reading a foreign language, a fact which was admitted by Professor G. T. Buswell in his *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* (New York, The Macmillan Company, 1927).

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*A Manual of Experiments and Projects in Physics*, by H. CLYDE KRENERICK. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, 184 pages, \$8.40.

Part I of this manual contains sixty-four experiments which are designed to effect "perfect correlation between laboratory work and classroom discussion in Physics." Each experiment presupposes that the student has already studied a definite assignment and can complete the experiment in one period of fifty minutes. The experiments cover the usual laboratory content of high-school physics and call for inexpensive equipment. For each experiment the author has provided an optional part to care for the exceptional students.

Part II of the manual contains twenty-one projects dealing with the construction, operation, and efficiency of various household and commercial appliances such as water heaters, gas stoves, electric plates and heaters, motors, and engines. The projects represent more expensive apparatus and the author suggests that they be done by students in groups of two, or individually, during the last five or six weeks of the semester in which case they serve as a laboratory review.

Teachers of physics will be interested to see how the author, a very successful teacher of high-school physics, outlines the laboratory work for his course. The reviewer is impressed with the care and detail of the directions and by the fact that the experiments are such that they "will work" in the hands of students. The numerous illustrations are mostly halftones of photographs of the apparatus. As such they are not wholly satisfactory, neglecting as they do the proven values of diagrammatic drawings. To the reviewer it seems unfortunate that the author includes several simple experiments commonly a part of the general science course.

C. J. P.

*Making Homes*, by HAZEL SHULTZ. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1931, xv + 519 pages, \$2.00.

This book has been prepared as a text for students of secondary level and presents in an interesting manner problems in housing which are met by the average person. It may be questioned whether the author has limited her field clearly enough to achieve this appreciation of good housing as well as of good homemaking in her students when they have completed its 519 pages. Some of the material, particularly that on domes-

## BOOK REVIEWS

tic service, household physics, and labor-saving devices, seems to fit into the plan set forth in the preface but does not belong particularly to the subject matter presented in the main body of the book.

The idea of the pretest questions is a novel one but again one may question their value as a method of arousing interest stated as they are. The nine fundamental concepts of the book are excellent but the development of the last two is weak. The omission of a section on cost of shelter is a serious deficiency to classes which cannot purchase more than one book. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen but the text rambles.

E. L. G. W.

*Bibliography of Research Studies in Education, 1929-1930.* Office of Education Bulletin, 1931, No. 13. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931, xii + 475 pages, \$85.

This important bulletin, prepared in the Library Division of the Office of Education by Edith A. Wright, is the fourth of such compilations, continuing the series in which have previously appeared Bulletins, 1928, No. 22, 1929, No. 36, and 1930, No. 23. It covers the period from July 1929 to September 1, 1930 and lists 4,651 titles, most of them annotated. The indices alone occupy 50 pages. Unpublished studies, such as theses, have been included, if reported, as well as those that have appeared in printed form in books, pamphlets, bulletins, proceedings, and journals. Researches are classified under twenty-five main heads and numerous subheads and are arranged alphabetically within subdivisions. Divisions are not strictly comparable on a numerical basis because of differences in range of content and possibilities of multiple classification, but it is of interest to note that the main heads of highest numerical rank are, in the order indicated, special subjects of the curriculum (23 per cent), teacher training and status, school management, vocational training, school administration, testing and research, health and physical education, and secondary education. More than half of all the studies are theses, 323 those of doctors, and 2,259 those of masters. City schools contribute 425 items. The universities reporting the highest numbers appear to be New York University 257, Peabody College 243, Columbia 176, Southern California 148, Iowa 146, University of Chicago 120, Pittsburgh 114, Ohio State 107. While it is probable that many of the papers can be called researches only by a considerable stretch in

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the connotation of the term, one cannot fail to be impressed with the widespread efforts to study educational problems. This volume, together with the others in the series, is a valuable source of information.

L. B.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

*L'Arrabbiata*, by Paul Heyse. Edited by Sophia H. Patterson. New York: American Book Company, 1931, xiv + 145 pages, \$76.

*Gregg Shorthand*, by John Robert Gregg. New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1931, xxii + 202 pages, \$1.50.

*General Business Science, Part III*, by Lloyd L. Jones and James L. Holtsclaw. New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1931, x + 794 + xvi pages, \$1.00.

*Transcription Drills*, by J. Walter Ross. New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1930, xvi + 178 pages, \$1.20.

*Understanding Advertising*, by Raymond Hawley and James B. Zabin. New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1931, x + 150 pages, \$1.20.

*The Expansion of Secondary Education*, Seventh Educational Yearbook of the International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia, edited by I. L. Kandel, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, xiv + 544 pages, \$3.50.

*Careers in the Making*, edited by Iona M. R. Logie. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931, xvii + 393 pages, \$1.20.

*Burke's Speech on Conciliation*, edited by H. D. Widger. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, xlvii + 103 pages, \$48.

*Old Testament Narratives*, edited by Mary Dawson and Roy L. French. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, xx + 291 pages, \$60.

*Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice*, edited by Pauline W. Leonard. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931, lxvii + 118 pages, \$80.

*Stevenson's An Inland Voyage and Travels With a Donkey*, edited by Florence A. Crocker. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, xix + 337 pages, \$80.

*One Thousand Problems in Industrial Education*, by Homer J. Smith. Minneapolis, Minnesota: The University of Minnesota Press, 1931, 90 pages, \$1.00.

*Secondary School Administration*, by J. B. Edmonson, Joseph Roemer, and S. L. Bacon. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931, ix + 483 pages, \$2.25.

*Child Psychology*, by John J. B. Morgan. New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1931, ix + 474 pages, \$4.00.

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